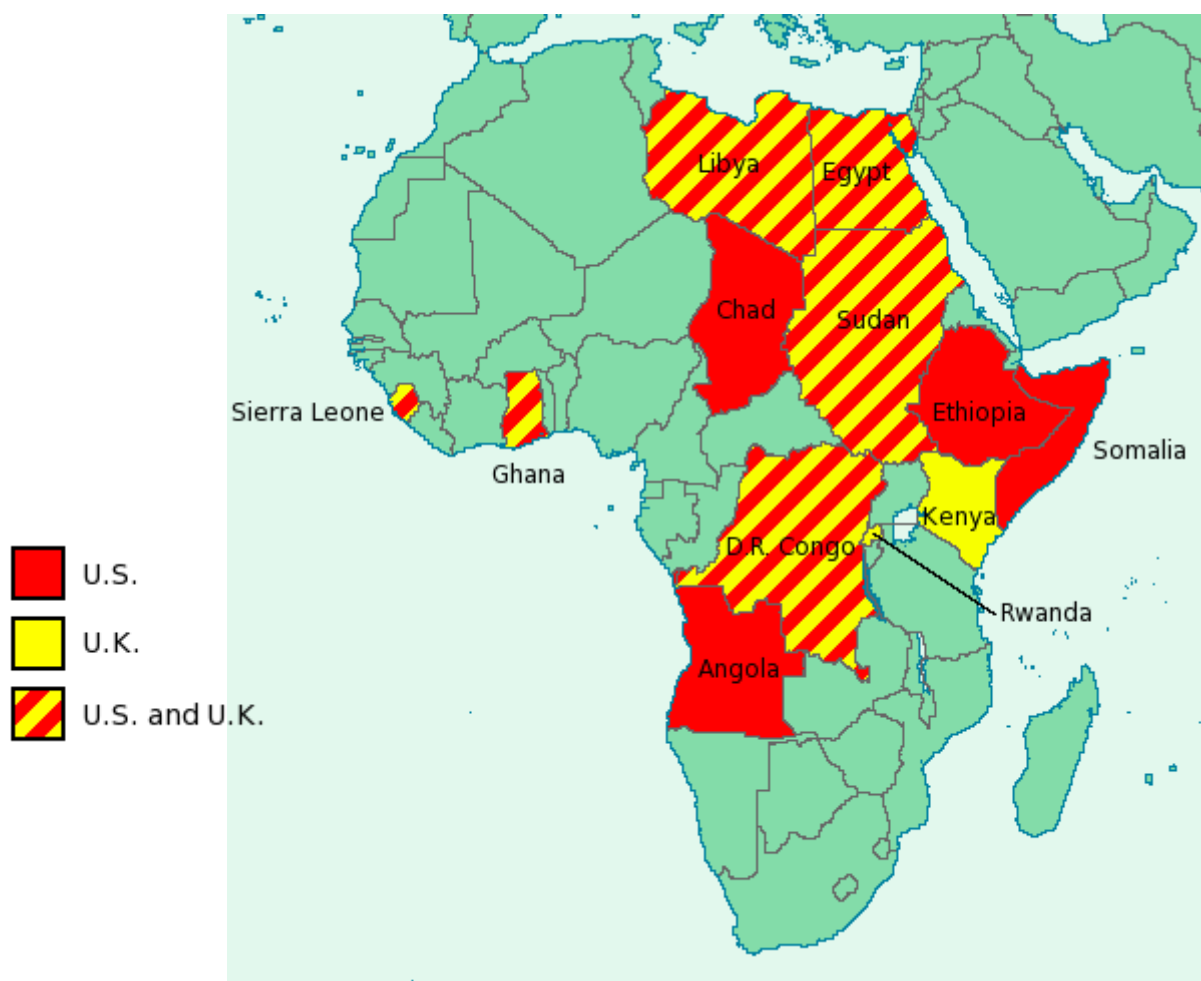


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Intervention and Exploitation: US and UK Government International Actions Since 1945

Africa



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Libya

1931:

End of the Italian colonization of Libya, when the Sanussiys give in. [1]

1943:

With the fall of the Axis powers in the World War 2, Britain and France divides Libya: Tripolitania and Cyrenaica comes under British control. Fezzan comes under French control. [1]

1947:

In secret talks with the British, U.S. officials agree to support a British base in Cyrenaica and also agree, as the best way of securing this base, to a British trusteeship over that province. [17]

1948:

A commission set up by Britain, France, the US and the Soviet Union concludes that the people of the three provinces are eager for independence, but that "at present none of the three zones is politically ready for self-government." [17]

1949:

After Great Britain, France, the United States, and the USSR fail to reach agreement on the future of Libya as stipulated in the 1947 peace treaty with Italy, the United Nations is given jurisdiction. [5] [17]

May - Britain and Italy put forward a plan giving the British trusteeship of Cyrenaica, France of Fezzan and Italy of Tripolitania until 1959, when Libya would become independent. The Libyans are outraged and the plan is narrowly rejected by the UN General Assembly. [17]

The US and Britain decide to now back "independence" as long as the ties to Britain are strong enough to ensure Britain and the US can gain strategic rights. To this end they choose Sayyid Idris as Emir of Cyrenaica, intending to establish a federal system which would seem him installed as leader of a united Libya despite having limited public support. [17]

September - Cyrenaica becomes an independent emirate, with Emir Sayyid Idris Sanussiy as leader. [1] [17]

November 21 - United Nations grants independence for a united Libya, to be realized within the span of 2 years. The transition is to be supervised by a commissioner advised by a council of representatives from the US, Britain, France, Italy, Egypt, Pakistan, each of the three regions of Libya and one representative for the minorities in Libya. The council is thus dominated by those who will follow the US and British lead. [1] [17]

1950s:

The 1950s in Libya are characterized by great poverty; minimal economic development is made possible only by the payments and loans received from various Western nations. [5]

1950:

A national assembly convenes in Tripoli. Emir Idris is designated king of the coming kingdom. The members of the assembly had been chosen in such a way as to ensure this outcome. [1] [17]

1951:

October 7 - Promulgation of the new constitution of Libya. The constitution gives the King overwhelming authority despite public protests.[1] [17]

December 24 - King Idris declares the independence of the United Kingdom of Libya. [1]

1952:

February - Elections are held for parliament. The results are manipulated and government candidates win almost everywhere. [1] [17]

1953:

Libya enters the Arab League. [1]

December 7 - Britain obtains rights on having military bases in Libya for a period of 20 years, in return for economic subsidies. [1] [5] [17]

1954:

September 9 - USA obtains equal agreement as Britain did the preceding year on military bases. [1] [17]

1955:

Libya joins the United Nations. [1]

1956:

Concessions on oil extraction is granted to two US oil companies. More companies would follow later. [1]

1959:

Oil is discovered. [17]

1961:

September - With the opening of a 167 km long pipe line, oil exportations start from Libya. US oil companies begin to reap huge profits, as do corrupt Libyan officials. Oil goes on to make a few in Libya very rich, but most of the populus do not benefit and remain poverty stricken. [1] [17]

Libya increases its share of oil profits from 50% to 70%. [1]

1963:

Amendments to the constitution, transforming Libya into one national unity, and allowing for female participation in elections. [1]

1964:

Negotiations between Libya and Britain and USA on cessation on military installations in Libya. [1]

1966:

Most British troops are withdrawn. [5]

1967:

After the Arab-Israeli war nationalism grows in strength. [17]

1969:

September 1 - Coup against the royal palace and the king staged by young officers.

The Libyan Arab Republic is established, and Mu'ammaru Qaddafi becomes head of a revolutionary council. [1] The US decides to not intervene. [17]

The regime pursues a policy of Arab nationalism and strict adherence to Islamic law; though Qaddafi espouses socialist principles, he is strongly anti-Communist. He is particularly concerned with reducing Western influences. [5]

September 14 - Libya takes effective control over banks, by obtaining 51% of the stocks. [1]

December 11 - Temporary constitution replace the old constitution. [1]

December 26 - Signing of a confederation between Libya, Egypt and Sudan. [1]

1970:

March 31 and June 30 - Last US and British troops leave Libya. [1]

The British are forced to evacuate their remaining bases in Libya, and the United States is required to abandon Wheelus Field, a U.S. air force base located near Tripoli. [5]

July 7 - Libya nationalizes the oil industry, together with all Italian assets in the country. [1]

1971:

Libya joins with Egypt and Syria to form a loose alliance called the Federation of Arab Republics. [5]

Qaddafi supports an unsuccessful coup in Chad, whereupon the latter breaks diplomatic relations, invites anti-Qaddafi groups to base themselves in the Chadian capital, and claims the Fezzan region of Libya. Qaddafi retaliates by officially recognizing the rebel organization in northern Chad, FROLINAT, and providing it with training camps. [18]

1972:

Relations are re-established between Chad and Libya. Apparently there is also a secret understanding allowing Libya to occupy a contested sliver of territory between the two countries, known as the Aouzou strip. Whether the Chadian leader was paid off for this territorial adjustment is unknown, but Libya does proceed to occupy the strip and no protest is raised. [18]

August 2 - Declaration of a merger with Egypt to be staged. [1]

1973:

February - 111 passengers and crewmembers are killed in the crash of a Libyan commercial airliner downed by gunfire from Israeli military jets as it descends, slightly off course during a dust storm, over Israeli-occupied Egyptian Sinai for a routine landing at Cairo International Airport. [3] Israel denies culpability even after the black box recording confirms no warning was given before the plane was shot down. Israel does however, agree to pay compensation to the victims' families. When the 30-member International Civil Aviation Organization votes on June 5, 1973, to censure Israel for its attack, the U.S. and Nicaragua - then under the Somoza regime - abstain. [6]

April - A "cultural revolution" is launched to seek to make life in the country more closely approximate to Qaddafi's socialist and Muslim principles. [5]

October - An implacable foe of Israel, Libya contributes some men and matériel (especially aircraft) to the Arab side in the Arab-Israeli war of this month. After the war, Libya is a strong advocate of reducing sales of petroleum to nations that had supported Israel and is also a leading force in increasing the price of crude petroleum. Qaddafi is severely critical of Egypt for negotiating a cease-fire with Israel, and relations between the two countries decline steadily after 1973 when Qaddafi fails to push through a merger with Egypt. [5]

1974:

January 12 - Merger between Tunisia and Libya is declared, but the incentive lasts only a couple of hours, since the Tunisian president reverses his decision. [1] [7]

1975:

August - Minister of Planning and RCC member Major Umar Mihayshi and about thirty army officers attempt a coup after disagreements over political economic policies. The failure of the coup leads to the flight of Mihayshi and part of the country's technocratic elite. In a move that signals a new intolerance of dissent, the regime executes twenty-two of the accused army officers in 1977, the first such punishment in more than twenty years. [1] [7]

Libya occupies and subsequently annexes the Aouzou Strip a 70,000-square-kilometer area of northern Chad adjacent to the southern Libyan border. Qaddafi's move is motivated by personal and territorial ambitions, tribal and ethnic affinities between the people of northern Chad and those of southern Libya, and, most important, the presence in the area of uranium deposits needed for atomic energy development. [7]

1976:

January - Students at the University of Benghazi protest at government interference in student union elections. Elected students who were not ASU members were considered officially unacceptable by the authorities. Security forces move onto the campus, and violence results. Reports that several students were shot and killed in the incident are adamantly denied by the government. [7]

Libya is implicated in an abortive attempt to overthrow President Nimeri of the Sudan, according to an authority on Libyan foreign policy, "while Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Sudan were reportedly undertaking a coordinated effort to topple Qaddafi's regime." [18]

1977:

March 2 - Libya is named *Jamahiriyah*, state of the masses. [1]

April 5 - Student demonstrations that are brutally suppressed. [1]

July - Border clashes with Egypt. [1] The cause of the hostilities between Egypt and Libya has never been clearly established, although the attacks were probably initiated by Egypt as punishment for Libyan interference and a warning against the Soviet-backed arms buildup. After border violations alleged by both sides, fighting escalates on July 19, with an artillery duel, and, two days later, a drive along the coast by Egyptian armor and infantry during which the Libyan army are engaged. Egypt claim successful surprise air strikes against the Libyan air base at Al Adem (Gamal Abdul Nasser Air Base) just south of Tobruk, destroying aircraft on the ground; surface-to-air missile batteries and radar stations are also knocked out. When the Egyptians withdraw on July 24, most foreign analysts agree that the Egyptian units have prevailed, although Libyan forces reacted better than had been expected. The Qaddafi regime nevertheless hails the encounter as a victory, citing the clash as justification for further purchases of modern armaments. [7]

November - Libya changes its national flag into the present all green. [1]

1978:

Initiatives that change the economy into socialist structures. [1]

Jimmy Carter responds in a restrained way to information that Qaddafi is planning to assassinate the U.S. Ambassador in Cairo: he sends Qaddafi a letter telling him he knows of the plan and that he had better cut it out; the plan is called off. (Carter's caution is at least partly out of concern not to upset the Egyptian-Israeli negotiations, the disruption of which is Qaddafi's motivation for the plot in the first place.) [18]

US bans military equipment sales to Libya in retaliation for Libyan support of terrorist groups. [12]

1979:

An organization in Cairo calling itself "The Revolutionary Council of the Prophet of God" announces that Qaddafi and other Libyan leaders have been sentenced to death. [18]

February 28 - Qaddafi rejects the authority of the hadith in Muslim lore. [1]

March - Despite support from French troops, the Chadian government collapses. With Nigerian mediation, a Transitional Government of National Unity is established and endorsed by the Organization of African Unity (OAU). Goukouni Oueddei and Hissene Habre -- leaders of two FROLINAT factions -- are made president and defense minister, respectively. Habre, however, with Egyptian and Sudanese help, tries to take total

power for himself. Finding himself threatened, Goukouni signs a defense pact with Libya. [7] [18]

December - The US declares Libya to be a "State Sponsor of Terrorism". [10]

1980:

Actions performed to root out foreign opposition to the Libyan government. [1] He begins ordering the assassination of Libyan dissidents who are living in exile in Europe. [5] [18]

June 27 - An Italian passenger plane is shot down over the Mediterranean, killing 81 people. In 1988 it is reported that the plane was shot down by a NATO missile. It is speculated that the plane was shot down in error, the intended target being a Libyan plane in the area which may have been carrying Qaddafi. [8]

August - French and Egyptian intelligence initiate an unsuccessful anti-Qaddafi plot. [18]

October - Libyan troops enter Chad in support of the recognized head of the government (Goukouni). [18]

1981:

January - Chad and Libya announce their intention to unite. [7]

February - A French plot (with US support) to assassinate Qaddafi is dropped when the French President Giscard is unexpectedly defeated at the polls. [8]

March - US claims that Libya is running training camps for terrorists. [12]

May - US closes Libyan diplomatic mission in Washington, citing inter alia its "support for international terrorism." [12]

August - The U.S. holds military manoeuvres off the coast of Libya in order to provoke a response from the Qaddafi regime. When a Libyan plane allegedly fires a missile at U.S. planes penetrating Libyan airspace, two Libyan planes are shot down. [4] [15] [18] Apparently the Reagan administration had decided to cast Qaddafi as a danger, in order to justify arms spending and to counter low domestic popularity. A plan was duly drawn up by the CIA to overthrow Qaddafi's regime. [8] [9] [18]

October - US imposes controls on exports of small aircraft, helicopters, aircraft parts, avionics to Libya to "limit Libyan capacity to support military adventures in neighboring countries." [12]

Egypt and Sudan abort a plan to attack Libyan forces in Sudan when president Sadat of Egypt is assassinated (the assassination is not related to Qaddafi). [18]

Goukouni, president of Chad -- having been promised an OAU peace-keeping force and French aid -- asks the Libyan forces to leave Chad. Four days later, Qaddafi agrees. Given a deadline of December 31, Libyan troops are actually out of Chad (though not the Aouzou strip) within two weeks. [18]

The U.S. provides some of the funding for the OAU peace-keeping force, but covertly is doing everything possible to subvert the government of Chad. Beginning in early 1981,

the Reagan administration had started providing arms to Habre's forces, regrouping in Sudan. Additional support was being provided by Egypt, Morocco, and France. Significantly, even after Libyan forces withdraw from Chad, U.S. aid to Habre continues. Habre proceeds to march into the country, maneuver around the OAU peace-keepers, who want to avoid combat, and takes over the government. [18]

November - Reagan accuses Qaddafi of sending a hit squad to assassinate him, but reveals no evidence of this. The information is later shown to be false, probably fabricated by a CIA group with the help of groups linked to Israel and Lebanon, who held Qaddafi as their enemy. [8] [9] [18]

Exxon abandons its Libyan operations. [12]

December - Reagan administration calls on 1,500 US citizens residing in Libya to leave "as soon as possible," citing "the danger which the Libyan regime poses to US citizens." US passports are declared invalid for travel to Libya. [12]

US oil firms agree to withdraw US personnel but announce they will be replaced with other foreign technicians. [12]

1982:

March 6 - USA embargoes oil imports from Libya and technology transfer is also banned. [7] [12]

November - US State Department warns oil companies (notably Charter Oil, Coastal Corp.) against selling refined products derived from Libyan crude in US. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) mounts opposition to Libyan occupation of Chad, assists Libyan exiles. CIA Director William J. Casey says these activities might lead to "ultimate" removal of Qaddafi. [12]

US bars Boeing sale of 12 commercial jets to Libyan Arab Airline for \$600 million. [12]

1983:

President Nimieri of the Sudan meets with Mohammed Youssef Magarieff in Washington. Magarieff is a Libyan exile in Egypt, who has set up the National Front for the Salvation of Libya, "dedicated to assassinating Qaddafi and overthrowing his regime." Nimieri promises him every form of support short of war: training facilities, weapons, travel facilitation, and carte blanche to conduct any type of activity against Libya from Sudan. [18]

February - the United States announces that its swift deployment of naval vessels and AWACs has prevented an impending Libyan attack on the Sudan. Strangely, Egypt states that there is no threat and the U.S. forces withdraw the next month. At the Security Council, the U.S. replies to Libyan charges of U.S. provocative military actions, declaring that "The United States had never engaged and did not now engage in acts of provocation" and that Libyan adventurism had been deterred. [18]

We now know, however, what actually happened. The whole thing was a joint US-Egyptian-Sudanese scheme to entrap Libya. Sudanese undercover agents acting

as a pro-Libyan group in Khartoum were to request Libyan air intervention, at which time the Egyptian air force, guided by AWACs and refueled by U.S. planes, would unleash devastating counterattacks on Qaddafi's planes. Egypt's only condition for the plan was that the U.S. role had to be kept secret. Once word leaked out about the movement of the AWACs, the plot had to be aborted. [18]

March-August - In Chad Goukouni is overthrown. From his Libyan exile, Goukouni reorganizes his forces and occupies the strategic northern town of Faya Largeau. As the conflict draws in other players, particularly France, Chad was in effect a partitioned country. With French help, the N'Djamena government of Hissein Habré controls the southern part of Chad. The area north of the sixteenth parallel, however, is controlled by Goukouni and his Libyan backers. [7] [12] [18]

August - President Reagan reports the deployment of two AWACS electronic surveillance planes and eight F-15 fighter planes and ground logistical support forces to assist Chad against Libyan and rebel forces. [15]

1984:

March - In response to alleged Libyan bombing of Omdurman, Sudan, US sends two AWACS surveillance planes to Egypt. [12]

April - The Libyan National Salvation Front (LNSF) organizes a demonstration in London, at which a British policewoman is killed allegedly by a Libyan diplomat, leading to the breaking of diplomatic relations between Tripoli and London. [7] There is compelling evidence that the killing was actually a CIA operation, probably with Israeli involvement, designed to vilify the Libyans, making action against Libya easier to take. [11]

May 8 - Assassination attempt on Qaddafi by the LNSF, who were trained by the CIA. Some 2,000 people are arrested and 8 publicly hanged. [1] [7] The French secret service are also involved, the French government seeing Qaddafi as a threat to their interests in Africa.[8] [18]

According to the terms of a September 1984 treaty, France withdraws its forces from Chad. Libya, however, decides to keep its troops there, and skirmishes and fighting continue intermittently. [7]

October - US charges Libya with complicity in laying of mines in Red Sea. [12]

1985:

The US State Department, with some difficulty, dissuades the White house from pursuing a plan for a joint US-Egyptian invasion of Libya.[8] [18]

September - Libya expels 100,000 immigrant workers — which strikes hard on neighbouring countries of Tunisia and Egypt. Borders to the two countries are closed. [1]

November - Washington Post reports that President Reagan has authorized covert operation to undermine Qaddafi regime, based on June 1984 CIA assessment that "no

course of action short of stimulating Qaddafi's fall will bring significant and enduring change in Libyan policies." [12] [18]

US bars imports of refined petroleum products from Libya, which have increased following opening of Ras Lanuf petrochemical complex earlier this year. [12]

December - Reagan accuses Qaddafi of being involved in bomb attacks at Rome and Vienna airports, which killed 20 people including 5 US citizens. There is no evidence of Libyan involvement but new US sanctions against Libya are imposed. [8] [12] [18]

1986:

Early in the year French troops return to southern Chad and there is a de facto partition of the country. [18]

January - Reagan approves expanded covert efforts to subvert Qaddafi and authorizes a high official to travel to Cairo to continue the military planning begun last year. The investigative reporters of the Washington Post find out about the secret mission.

National Security Adviser John Poindexter asks the Post to kill the story. Here we get to see how the newspaper that had exposed Watergate responds to a plea from the U.S. government to help hide a U.S. plan to violate international law. Editor Ben Bradlee decides that the mission would be mentioned, but in a passing oblique reference down in paragraph five. [18]

Reagan breaks all economic relations with Libya. At a White House meeting, according to one participant, a decision is explicitly reached to provoke Qaddafi by again sending naval vessels and aircraft to the Gulf of Sidra. Any Libyan response would be used to justify military action. For four days in January, U.S. war planes fly in the region covered by Libyan radar. In February, two carrier battle groups and their planes conduct exercises in the same region, though not in waters claimed by Libya. [18]

February - US revises sanctions to allow oil companies to continue operations in Libya temporarily. Rule allows sale of Libyan crude at Libyan ports, but bars drilling for, extracting, distributing, or marketing Libyan oil. In addition, companies are expected to dispose of their Libyan holdings "as soon as practicable on fair and appropriate terms," but no deadline is set. [12]

March - US Sixth Fleet challenges Qaddafi's claim to territorial waters in Gulf of Sidra, crosses his "Line of Death." Action provokes Libyan attack during which two Libyan patrol boats are sunk, drowning 72 Libyan sailors. An onshore antiaircraft missile site is also destroyed. [12] [15] [18]

A British engineer attests that he was watching radar screens during the two days of fighting and saw US planes cross not only into the 12 miles of Libyan territorial waters, but over Libyan land as well. "I watched the planes fly approximately eight miles into Libyan airspace," said the engineer. "I don't think the Libyans had any choice but to hit back. In my opinion they were reluctant to do so." [8]

Before and after these events Qaddafi makes several attempts to open dialogue with Washington, but all are rebuffed. [8]

The US here adopts the doctrine of "preventive war", saying that such attacks are justified "in self defense against future attack." This is the first explicit statement of this doctrine. [9]

By the end of March, various stories have reached the press regarding U.S. military plans against Libya in concert with Egypt. One plan that is described "involved an Egyptian ground attack followed by a request for United States assistance," a pattern "similar to the one in the Suez crisis of 1956...." The semi-official Egyptian newspaper Al-Ahram reports that there have been three U.S. efforts to get Egypt to attack Libya, all rejected by Cairo. The U.S. Ambassador to Egypt informs Washington, however, that Egyptian leader Mubarak secretly vowed to continue the anti-Libyan military planning with Washington. [18]

April 5 - Terrorist bomb destroys West Berlin discotheque frequented by US servicemen, killing three persons, injuring over 150. US charges Libyan complicity on basis of intercepted Libyan diplomatic transmissions. Reagan states that "evidence is direct, it is precise, it is irrefutable," begins planning military retaliation. [12] US and West German intelligence however, had no evidence of Libyan involvement. [14] [18] A German TV documentary in 1998 presented evidence that the CIA and Mossad may have been involved in the bombing of the discotheque. [13]

April 14 - In hopes of forestalling US military response to West Berlin bombing, EC countries agree to reduce size of Libyan embassies, restrict movements of Libyan diplomats in Europe. [12]

April 15 - US bombers attack Qaddafi's headquarters, home, military airfields and alleged terrorist training camps around Tripoli and Benghazi in retaliation for the alleged Libyan role in 5 April bombing, and to deter future terrorist acts against US installations. Over 100 civilians are killed. UK allows US to use British airfields for exercise and provides strong public support, but France denies overflight rights for US planes. [1] [2] [3] [12] [15] [18]

May - Libyan Arab Foreign Bank files suit in London seeking payment of funds blocked by Bankers Trust London under US assets freeze. [12]

June - Treasury revokes special exemptions for US oil companies but authorizes them to enter into standstill agreements with Libyan authorities to maintain their ownership rights for three years while they continue to negotiate the sale of assets to Libya. [12]

August - OPEC officials report that France has begun boycotting imports of Libyan oil, refined products. In further attempt to destabilize Qaddafi, Reagan administration sponsors disinformation campaign on extent of Libyan opposition to Qaddafi regime. [12]

A memo from John Poindexter, the president's national security adviser, reveals some of the US disinformation program. Officials then admit that they have no evidence against Qaddafi. One senior spokesman for the State Department resigns in protest. British intelligence also describe US intelligence about Libya, passed to them, as being "wildly inaccurate" and "a deliberate effort to deceive". [8] [18]

October - Qaddafi and Goukouni have a falling out, whereupon the Libyans find themselves opposed by all Chadian factions. The Libyans are promptly routed by the Chadians, aided by new U.S. military aid, French air cover, French special forces and advisers, and U.S. and French intelligence. [18]

1987:

U.S.-Libyan confrontation calms down. Because of the falling price of oil, Qaddafi finds his country facing serious economic and social problems, and so is less inclined to challenge the United States. For its part, Washington concludes that U.S. pressure has made an anti-Qaddafi coup in Libya less likely, by making Qaddafi into a hero who had stood up to the American colossus. In addition, the Iran-contra scandal tones down the exploits of the National Security Council. [18]

March 27 - Liberalization of the economy, loosening of the socialist structures. [1]

mid 1987 - Abu Nidal is ejected from Syria, he relocates to Libya. [18]

August - Using as a pretext an alleged Libyan attack (that French sources consider to be a complete fabrication), Habre seizes Aouzou. Libya retakes it a few weeks later and a Chadian ground unit attacks an air base sixty miles inside Libya. U.S. officials deny that they advised Habre to go north, but they refuse to criticize the cross-border raid. [18]

September - The OAU get Libya and Chad to accept a cease fire. [18]

High Court of Justice in London rules in favour of Libya, orders Bankers Trust London to transfer to Libyan Arab Foreign Bank \$131 million, plus accrued interest, that has been blocked by US assets freeze. US Treasury authorizes payment on 9 October. [12]

1988:

Chad and Libya restore diplomatic ties and agree to a peaceful settlement of the Aouzou issue; Qaddafi publicly concedes that his involvement in Chad was a mistake. [18]

April - Some political liberalization involves freeing of political prisoners. Borders with Tunisia and Egypt are reopened. [1] [8]

Reagan administration accuses Libya of producing chemical weapons at plant near Rabta, south of Tripoli. Although Libya claims that plant produces pharmaceuticals, production ceases for over a year. [12]

December - 38 minutes after takeoff, Pan Am Airways Flight 103 explodes over Lockerbie, Scotland, killing all 269 passengers, most of them US citizens, and 11 people on the ground. [3]

Five months later the State Department announces that the CIA is confident that the bomb was planted by members of the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine General Command (PFLP-GC), led by Ahmed Jibril, based in Syria and hired by Iran to avenge the US shooting down of an Iranian airliner. Then in 1990 as the US is preparing to invade Iraq and wants the support of Syria and Iran, they switch to blaming Libya for the attack, despite a lack of any real evidence. [3] [8]

1989:

January - Two US Navy F-14 aircraft based on the USS John F. Kennedy shoot down two Libyan jet fighters over the Mediterranean Sea about 70 miles north of Libya. The US pilots say the Libyan planes had demonstrated hostile intentions. [8] [15]

January-March - Actions against Islamist group of Jihad, 1,500 arrests. [1]

January - Just before the 3-year standstill agreements are to expire, Reagan allows US oil companies to return to Libya via their European subsidiaries. Qaddafi, however, refuses to allow them to return, in effect continuing the standstill and leaving US investments in limbo. [12]

February 17 - Declaration of the Maghreb Union, together with Mauritania, Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia. [1]

September - Establishment of a body for world Muslim revolution. [1]

A French airliner, UTA Flight 772, explodes over Niger, killing all persons aboard. French investigators later uncover evidence implicating Libyan intelligence agents. [12] Pan Am's insurers, anticipating lawsuits from victims' families, carry out their own investigation into the Lockerbie bombing, concluding that the bomb was placed in Frankfurt (from where the plane took off, and not in Valletta as the official story goes), and was done by a Palestinian resistance movement targeting the US Defence Intelligence Agency (DIA). [3]

The London Times quotes an ex-DIA agent, Mr Coleman, as saying that the DEA, together with the narcotics squad of the Cypriot national police, the German BKA police and British customs, ran a 'drugs sting operation' through Cyprus and airports in Europe including Frankfurt. He was told that BKA had 'serious concerns' that a US drugs sting operation out of Cyprus had been used by terrorists to place the bomb on flight 103, by switching bags. [3]

Qaddafi reportedly cuts back funding to numerous rebel movements, asks them to close their offices in Libya. In interview in magazine Al Mussawar, Qaddafi admits to having supported terrorists in past, but "when we discovered that these groups were causing more harm than benefit to the Arab cause, we halted our aid to them completely and withdrew our support." Action parallels drop in Libyan foreign reserves to under \$3 billion in first quarter of 1989. [8] [12] [18]

1990:

March - Within days of US intelligence reports that chemical weapons production has resumed at Rabta, Qaddafi blames West German agents for alleged fire at plant he claims has caused extensive damage. US intelligence agencies later conclude that alleged fire was elaborate hoax, that Rabta plant is intact, capable of resuming production. [12]

April - Qaddafi intervenes with Abu Nidal to obtain release of two French hostages, one Belgian; Qaddafi receives "personal thanks" of French President François Mitterrand. [12]

June - Palestinian terrorist, captured with several heavily armed comrades off coast of Israel, claims they were trained in Libya, transported in Libyan boats, accompanied by Libyan adviser. A few months later, Qaddafi expels radical Palestinian group responsible for attack. [12]

1991:

Strengthening of ties with Egypt. [1]

November - US, UK, France issue joint declaration calling on Libya to surrender for trial those recently charged in the Pan Am and UTA bombings. [12]

December - The EC calls on Libya to comply with the joint demands and raises the possibility of sanctions if it does not. Libya reportedly begins to move its liquid assets out of Britain and France to Switzerland and Gulf states. [12]

Libya arrests two men suspected in the bombing of Pan Am Flight 103 but refuses to extradite them to the US or the UK. [12]

1992:

January - In an effort to stave off a British-backed resolution in the United Nations Security Council imposing sanctions, Qaddafi offers to surrender the Pan Am suspects to an international tribunal. [12]

March - The Security Council rejects the Libyan offer as inadequate, imposes a total air and arms embargo (UN Security Council Resolution 748) in response to Libya's continuing refusal to extradite the suspects in the bombings. The resolution also restricts the number of diplomats Libya can maintain abroad. [1] [12]

Libya was prepared to hand the suspects over for trial in Malta (where the alleged crime took place), but not Scotland or the UK. [3]

May - During remarks at a Non-Aligned Movement meeting in Indonesia, Libyan Foreign Minister Ibrahim Mohammed Beshari claims that Libya will abandon terrorism. However, Libya continues to refuse to release two suspects in the Pan Am 103 bombing. [12]

1993:

May - Libya claims that UN travel sanctions have caused the death of over 800 people and cost the country \$2.2 billion in lost exports. Qaddafi appeals to his North African neighbors to help broker a UN agreement and hints that Libya would try to open its

borders to greater investment and tourism in an effort to end its international isolation. [12]

November - Given Libya's continuing intransigence, the UN Security Council votes to ban the sale of petroleum equipment to Libya and to freeze non-petroleum-related Libyan government assets abroad. The sanctions fall short of a US effort to prohibit the export of Libyan crude, a move opposed by Germany and Italy. Russia reluctantly votes for the resolution while China, Pakistan, Morocco, and Djibouti abstain. The resolution states that sanctions will be lifted if Libya agrees to extradite to the UK two suspects in the Pan Am 103 bombing. Libya offers to send the two agents to stand trial in Switzerland, but both London and Washington refuse. [12]

December - A BBC program, "Silence Over Lockerbie" presents findings which cast doubt on the case against Libya and indicates that the British and US governments may have fingered Libya to divert suspicion from Syria and Iran. [8]

1994:

Volker Rath, German government prosecutor, declares of the Libyan suspects for the Lockerbie bombing "No German judge could, with the present evidence, put the two suspects in jail." [8]

1995:

April - Libyan violations on the UN ban on international flights in and out of Libya, with an airplane sending pilgrims to Mecca in Saudi Arabia for hajj. [1]

In its annual terrorism report, the State Department charges Libya with continued support of international terrorists and involvement in overseas attacks against Libyan exiles. [12]

September-October - Libya begins expelling foreign workers, citing the economic hardship incurred as a result of the 1992 UN trade and travel sanctions, and requests permission from the UN to charter flights to repatriate migrant African workers in the country. Tripoli hopes that the expulsions will put pressure on the UN to relax its sanctions program. [12]

September 6 and 7 - Clashes between Libyan police and militant Islamists in Benghazi. Thousands of Islamists and Sudanese expatriates are arrested following the clashes. [1]

December - The UK expels a Libyan diplomat from the special interests section of the Saudi embassy on charges of espionage. Libya retaliates by sending home a British diplomat from the interest section of the Italian embassy in Tripoli. [12]

The Senate overwhelmingly approves the "Iran Foreign Oil Sanctions Act of 1995" to impose secondary sanctions on companies that invest over \$40 million in Iran's oil and gas industries (See case 84-1, US v. Iran). Senator Edward M. Kennedy (D-MA) adds a last-minute amendment to the bill that extends sanctions to Libya. [12]

In response to Congressional pressure to pass legislation to impose sanctions on Libya's investment partners, the White House calls on the United Nations to enact tighter sanctions on oil equipment exports to Libya. [12]

1996:

January - In a letter to Senate Majority Leader Robert Dole (R-KS), the European Union (EU) strongly criticizes US efforts to impose extraterritorial sanctions in relation to Iran and Libya. [12]

February - Assassination and coup attempt against Libya's Colonel Qaddafi with, according to former MI5 officer David Shayler, MI6 funds and backing. [2]

May - US Administration officials, citing the potential for angering European allies and undermining the UN effort to isolate Tripoli, press Congress to terminate efforts to impose secondary sanctions against foreign firms that invest in Libya. [12]

Relatives of the victims of the Pan Am 103 bombing file suit against the government of Libya, taking advantage of the opportunities opened by the Anti-Terrorism Act of 1996, which allows victims of terrorist acts abroad to sue foreign countries in US courts. [12]

July - Congress passes the Iran and Libya Sanctions Act (ILSA). The legislation mandates sanctions when companies: invest more than \$40 million in gas and oil development in Libya, or export goods or technology prohibited by UN resolutions which would help Libya acquire weapons, or boost Libya's aviation capabilities. [12]

The EU expresses outrage at the passage of the Iran and Libya Sanctions Act. The European Commission announces that a regulation being drafted to retaliate against US sanctions on foreign companies trafficking in expropriated US property in Cuba (the Helms-Burton legislation, see Case 60-3) could also be used to retaliate against the Iran and Libya Sanctions Act. [12]

The UN Security Council warns Qaddafi not to defy UN sanctions, and declares that his expressed intention to fly anywhere he wishes, in violation of the air ban, is unacceptable. [12]

August - President Clinton signs the Iran and Libya Sanctions Act at a ceremony attended by relatives of victims of the 1988 bombing of Pan Am Flight 103. [12]

German authorities arrest two men on suspicion of smuggling high-technology equipment to Libya to enable it to manufacture lethal nerve gas. [12]

The EU announces that it will appeal to the World Trade Organization if the US punishes any European companies for doing business with Iran or Libya. [12]

October - The US criticizes Turkish Prime Minister Necmettin Erbakan for visiting Libya and signing a new bilateral trade pact. Erbakan counters that his primary objective was to secure repayment of an outstanding debt of \$300 million. [12]

Libya announces that UN sanctions are taking a "tragic toll" on the country, costing \$19 billion and causing as many as 21,000 deaths in the past three and a half years. Libya claims agriculture is the hardest-hit sector, with losses estimated at \$5.9 billion. [12]

Ente Nazionale Idrocarburi (ENI), Italy's state oil company, announces that it signed a deal in June 1996 to develop Libya's natural-gas resources and build a pipeline to Italy for an estimated \$3 billion. [12]

1997:

January - Libya sentences to death six spies accused of passing defense secrets to foreign governments. According to Egyptian experts, this case may be related to a military coup attempt in October 1993. [12]

March - In defiance of US efforts to isolate the Qaddafi regime internationally, the Vatican establishes full diplomatic relations with Libya to "recognize recent positive results in the area of religious freedom." [12]

May - A group of US senators led by Edward M. Kennedy urges US Ambassador to the UN Bill Richardson to introduce a Security Council resolution for an oil embargo, calling it the only sanction likely to bring about Libyan compliance with UN demands. [12]

Qaddafi violates UN sanctions by flying to Niger to meet President Ibrahim Barré Mainassara. [12]

August - Four African leaders-the presidents of Burkina Faso, Chad, Mali, and Niger-issue a statement calling on the UN to look into the impact of economic sanctions on Libya. They meet with Qaddafi and jointly call on each country to "develop their economic relations and reinforce the mechanisms of cooperation with the goal of reinforcing stability in the region." [12]

September - In defiance of UN sanctions against Libya, the Arab League approves a resolution urging Arab countries to "take measures to alleviate the sanctions on Libya," including allowing Qaddafi to travel by plane to member states. The resolution also authorizes humanitarian flights and encourages member countries to release Libyan nonoil funds frozen in Arab banks. [12]

October - Despite US opposition, South African President Nelson Mandela travels to Libya for a diplomatic visit; complying with UN flight ban, he flies to a border town and arrives by road. Mandela, who is grateful for Qaddafi's support in the fight against apartheid, is the most influential visitor to Libya since the 1992 flight ban. He presents Qaddafi with South Africa's Order of Good Hope, the country's highest award for a foreigner. [12]

The Libyan government sends letters to families of victims of Pan Am 103, urging them to accept a financial settlement and oppose sanctions. [12]

December - New York Times reports that a massive Libyan underground pipe project, the Great Man-Made River Project, could serve as a conduit for troops and military vehicles. The pipeline, made of pipes 13 feet in diameter, has large underground storage facilities every 50 or 60 miles and runs through a mountain where intelligence sources report Qaddafi is constructing a chemical and biological weapons plant. [12]

1998:

February - US District Judge Thomas Platt rules that families of the victims of Pan Am 103 bombing can sue Libya. Lawyers argue that frozen Libyan assets could be used to pay award damages to the families. The decision is appealed by Libya. [12]

Acting on Libya's March 1992 complaint, the International Court of Justice in The Hague rules that it has authority to decide whether Libya must surrender two of its citizens for trial over the Pan Am 103 bombing in 1988. The US, the UK, and France had unsuccessfully argued against ICJ involvement, on the grounds that the UN Security Council's 1992 and 1993 resolutions precluded the court's involvement. Libya argued that under the 1971 Montreal Convention against aviation terrorism it is not required to extradite the two agents and has the right to try the suspects itself or send them to a neutral country for trial. Calling the ruling a victory, Libya claims the UN sanctions should be declared null and void. [12]

March - At the request of the Libyan government, the UN Security Council holds a debate on sanctions against Libya. In response to Libyan claims of injury, US Ambassador Richardson argues that "if Libya suffers economically, it is certainly not because of UN sanctions," and points out that UN sanctions "are targeted sanctions, imposed to address aspects of Libyan involvement in international terrorism, but specifically designed to prevent suffering among the Libyan people." [12]

April - Libya agrees to let Germany question its agents about a discotheque bombing that killed two US servicemen and a Turkish woman in 1986. [12]

June - The heads of state of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) call on African nations to suspend compliance with the UN air embargo on Libya for all religious, humanitarian, or OAU-related flights. The OAU also asserts that it will ignore all sanctions on Libya starting in September if the US and the UK have not agreed by then to try the Pan Am 103 bombing suspects in a third country. State Department spokesman James Rubin states, "We are extremely disturbed by this short-sighted action, which constitutes a direct assault on the authority of the Security Council ..." and calls on OAU member states to ignore the OAU resolution. [12]

August - Secretary of State Madeleine Albright and UK Foreign Secretary Robin Cook unveil a proposal to hold the trial of the two suspects in the Pan Am 103 bombing under Scottish law in a court in Netherlands. If convicted, the suspects are to serve time in British prison. Albright stresses that the deal is a "take-it-or-leave-it proposition" and that the US will push for additional sanctions, including an oil embargo, if Libya refuses the offer. [12]

The Arab League, Egypt, Sudan, and South African President Nelson Mandela express support for the US-UK proposal. [12]

The UN Security Council votes to suspend sanctions on Libya if Qaddafi extradites the Pan Am 103 bombing suspects for trial in The Hague and cooperates with the French investigation into the 1989 bombing of UTA Flight 772. The Security Council threatens

additional measures if Libya does not surrender the suspects for trial. Libyan acceptance of the offer, however, will not necessarily end unilateral US sanctions. [12] Having accepted the proposal in principle a few days earlier, Qaddafi asks for a variety of guarantees to ensure fair treatment of the suspects before he will surrender them for trial in the Netherlands. [12]

September - The presidents of Niger, Chad, Mali, Eritrea, and Sudan defy the UN air embargo and fly to Libya to celebrate anniversary of Qaddafi's accession to power in 1969. [12]

In a speech to the UN General Assembly, Libya's UN ambassador, Abuzed Omar Dorda, describes the US-UK offer on the Pan Am 103 bombing suspects to be "honey with a dose of poison." Dorda demands guarantees that the suspects will not be extradited to the US or the UK and that if convicted they would serve their sentences in a third country or in Libya. [12]

October - US and British officials maintain that Libya's demand for the Pan Am 103 bombing suspects to serve any sentence outside the US and the UK is not acceptable. The US official says that "if Libya continues to press its demand, there can be no agreement." [12]

December - UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan meets with Qaddafi in Libya to try to break the deadlock on transferring the Pan Am 103 bombing suspects; describes their discussions as "fruitful and positive." [12]

At a memorial service marking the tenth anniversary of the Pan Am 103 bombing, President Clinton states that if Libya does not surrender the suspects for trial before the UN reviews the sanctions against Libya in February, the US will press for harsher sanctions.[12]

1999:

February - The US and Britain reiterate that unless Qaddafi releases the Pan Am 103 bombing suspects for trial within 30 days, they will press for more sanctions in the UN Security Council. However, they fail to convince the Security Council to impose a precise deadline.[12]

March - France convicts six Libyans in absentia for the 1989 bombing of the UTA airliner over Niger. Because French law does not recognize convictions in absentia, the six would have to be retried if they are extradited to France. [12]

After talks in Tripoli, South African President Nelson Mandela announces that Libya agreed to hand over the suspects for trial on April 16.[12]

April - The two Pan Am 103 bombing suspects, 47-year-old Abdel Basset Ali al-Meghrahi and 43-year-old Lamén Khalifa Fhimah, are delivered from Libya to The Hague for trial. Three Scottish judges will decide the case. If convicted, the men will serve their sentences in a Scottish jail under UN supervision. Britain reportedly assured Qaddafi that no witnesses would come from Libya and that all witnesses would have

immunity from arrest. Britain also reportedly told Qaddafi that the evidence was only against al-Meghrahi and Fhimah, and not against higher members of the Libyan government. UN Secretary-General Annan announces that UN sanctions against Libya will be suspended, and can be lifted after 90 days. Annan reportedly gave Qaddafi assurances that a new resolution would be needed to reinstate the sanctions. The unilateral US sanctions, however, remain in force. State Department spokesman James Rubin says the US wants "additional concerns alleviated." [3] [12]

At the first major investor conference in Geneva after UN sanctions were suspended, the head of exploration at Libya's National Oil Corporation Ibrahim Bagger assures US oil companies that Libya will honour the 1986 standstill agreement although it lapsed in 1989.[12]

President Clinton announces that the United States will exempt exports of food and medicine from future sanctions imposed by the executive branch. The new rules also apply to food and medicine sales to Iran, Libya, and Sudan, which will be permitted on a case-by-case basis. Specific licensing rules will be drawn up for each country and there will be no US government funding, financing, or guarantees for the sales. [12]

June - At the first official meeting between US and Libya in 18 years, US Representative to the UN A. Peter Burleigh tells Libya that the United States will not support permanent lifting of UN sanctions until Libya stops supporting international terrorism and meets other conditions required by UN resolutions, including compensation payments to the victims' families and full cooperation with the trial. [12]

July - UK announces resumption of diplomatic ties with Libya after 15 years. Relations are renewed after Libya accepted "general responsibility" for the 1984 shooting of a policewoman outside the Libyan embassy in London and agreed to compensate her family. [12]

Libya pays \$31 million to France to compensate the families of those killed in the bombing of UTA flight in 1989. French Foreign Ministry states that payment is acknowledgment by Libya that its officials were responsible for the deaths. [12]

Italy's state oil company ENI announces it has reached final agreement with Libya to invest \$5.5 billion to develop oil and gas reserves. The initial agreement dates back to June 1996. Libya is seeking \$35 billion in investments between 2001-2005. [12]

December - Italian Prime Minister Massimo D'Alema is the first Western leader to visit Libya in 8 years. [12]

2000:

March - Japan announces it no longer considers Libya a terrorist threat and that it is considering lifting sanctions. [12]

May - Lockerbie trial begins in Camp Zeist, the Netherlands. The two defendants, Abdel Basset Ali Mohamed al-Meghrahi and Al-Amin Khalifa Fhimah, are charged with murder,

conspiracy to murder, and violation of the 1982 Aircraft Security Act. The suspects plead not guilty and blame Palestinian terrorists for the crime. [12]

July - Strong improvements on relations with neighbouring countries, as air traffic is resumed with countries like Morocco and Egypt. [1]

August - To counter speculations of a secret deal with Libya, Secretary General Kofi Annan releases the letter sent to Qaddafi that led to a compromise on Lockerbie trial. The letter assures Qaddafi that the trial will not be used by the United States and the United Kingdom to undermine his regime and that standard Scottish trial procedures will be followed. [12]

October - French court, rejecting arguments that Qaddafi is immune from prosecution as head of state, rules that a case against the Libyan leader over the bombing of French airliner UTA can proceed. [12]

2001:

January - Arguing that prosecution failed to present sufficient evidence to secure a conviction, defense rests its case in the Lockerbie trial. Two days later, prosecution drops all but the murder charges. [12]

In a unanimous ruling Scottish judges find Abdel Basset al-Megrahi guilty of murder and sentence him to life in prison, but acquit second defendant, Al-Amin Khalifa Fhimah. The United States makes clear that the verdict alone will not lead to lifting of sanctions. Libya needs to meet other requirements laid out in the Security Council resolutions, including compensation to the victims' families and the acceptance of responsibility. The United Kingdom supports US position. [3] [12]

Robert Black, the Scottish law professor who devised the format of the Netherlands-based trial, is '*absolutely astounded*' at the guilty verdict, and believes the prosecution had '*a very, very weak circumstantial case*'. He is reluctant to believe that Scottish judges would '*convict anyone, even a Libyan*' on such evidence. [3]

A United Nations observer at the trial notes that the decision appeared to be politically motivated, with pressure from the US and UK. He notes '*The present judgment is logically inconsistent ... You cannot come out with a verdict of guilty for one and innocent for the other when they were both being tried with the same evidence ... In my opinion, there seemed to be considerable political influence on the judges and the verdict.*' [3] [8]

February - During welcome home celebrations for Al-Amin Khalifa Fhimah, Qaddafi announces Libya will not pay compensation to the victims' families or acknowledge official responsibilities. A few days later Qaddafi charges that the Lockerbie verdict was "politically tainted" and reiterates that no compensation will be paid. [12]

August - Bush imposes a five-year extension to sanctions against Libya and Iran, accusing them of involvement in international terrorism, and demanding Libya accept responsibility for the Lockerbie bombing and pay compensation to relatives. [3] [12]

September - Qaddafi condemns the terrorist attack in New York and Washington as "horrific" and offers the United States intelligence assistance on Osama bin Laden and al-Qaeda. [12]

November - German court finds four people guilty of involvement in the bombing of a West Berlin nightclub in 1986. The court concludes that the "the Libyan state was at least to a large extent responsible" because the attack "was planned by members of the Libyan secret service in senior positions in the Libyan [embassy] in East Berlin." [12] Libyan envoy to the United Nations Abdurrahman Mohamed Shalghem notes that Libya "is a party to most international agreements in the field of disarmament, and is in the process of acceding to the rest, including the Chemical Weapons Convention and the Nuclear Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty." In February, US Secretary of Defense William Perry had hinted at a possible US military strike to prevent the underground chemical plant at Tarhuna from becoming operational. [12]

2002:

March - Appeal by Abdel Basset al-Meghrahi of his life sentence in connection with Lockerbie bombing is denied. [12]

May - Libya, along with Cuba and Syria, is added to Bush's 'axis of evil'. [3]

2003:

March - Libya agrees to take some measure of responsibility for the Pan Am bombing after US and UK assurance that the move would not be used as grounds for legal action against the government. Compensation of victims and acceptance of responsibility are conditions for the lifting of UN sanctions. US deputy secretary of state Richard Armitage states, "We are in striking distance of an agreement to lift [UN] sanctions. But no one in the State Department is talking about lifting US sanctions. Our concern is weapons of mass destruction. The UN's is Lockerbie." [12]

August - Libya, while still denying responsibility for the Pan-Am bombing, offers \$2.7 billion in compensation to the victims' families if the UN and US sanctions against it are lifted. However, for the UN and US this is not enough - an admission is required. [3] [12] Libya submits a letter to the UN Security Council accepting responsibility for the bombing of Pan Am flight 103 as a "sovereign state accepting responsibility for the actions of its officials." Wording of Libya's letter, carefully negotiated in talks with the United Kingdom and the United States, ties its legal responsibility to the employment of Meghrahi, not to an admission of government involvement. Fulfilling the remaining UN condition, Libya also officially renounces all forms of terrorism. [12]

The United Kingdom submits a resolution calling for the lifting of UN sanctions.

Secretary of State Powell states that "[t]he lifting of sanctions at the United Nations will not affect U.S. bilateral measures, which will remain in place." France threatens to veto the resolution unless Libya offers larger compensation to families of UTA bombing victims. [12]

September 12 - The UN finally lifts sanctions against Libya after Libya accepts responsibility for the Lockerbie bombing and offers to pay compensation for the downing of a 1989 UTA flight above Niger which claimed 170 lives, something for which it has never accepted responsibility. Whilst agreeing to take "responsibility" for the Lockerbie bombing, the Libyan government still does not admit to a role in the event. [3] [8] [12]

October - Talks on the UTA case between Libya and France stall, with Libya wanting Paris to honour a deal to compensate for Libyan deaths as a result of French involvement in Chad, and France wanting Libya to pay the same amount of money it is giving relatives of the Lockerbie air bombing victims. Libya also continues to insist that six Libyans convicted by France in absentia for the attack were innocent.[3]

December - President Bush and British Prime Minister Blair announce that, after nine months of secret negotiations, Libya has agreed to disclose and dismantle its nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons programs; accede to the Chemical Weapons Convention; destroy all missiles with a range greater than 180 miles, and allow international inspectors unconditional access to monitor and verify compliance. The agreement follows the seizure of illegal shipments of uranium-enrichment equipment to Libya in early October as part of the US-led Proliferation Security Initiative launched in May. Bush administration emphasizes that the United States will not offer rewards or lift sanctions until Libya actually starts dismantling its weapons of mass destruction. [12] International Atomic Energy Agency Director Mohamed El Baradei and a team of inspectors arrive in Libya for the first inspection of four previously undeclared nuclear facilities. Inspectors praise Libya's cooperation. [12]

2004:

January - Libya signs an agreement with France on payment of an additional \$170 million to the families of people killed in the bombing of the UTA 722 flight. [12] Libya ratifies the nuclear test ban treaty and agrees to host a station monitoring compliance with the treaty on its territory. Libya also ratified the Chemical Weapons Convention. [12]

US and UK weapons experts return to Libya to begin dismantling, removing, and destroying technology and materials related to Libya's weapons of mass destruction programs. [12]

US military transports 55,000 tons of nuclear-related equipment and material from Libya to the US. Wall Street Journal reports that shipment is only 5 percent of equipment the US plans to remove but contains the most sensitive items. [12]

February - Foreign Minister Abdurrahman Shalgam arrives in London for the first visit by a Libyan foreign minister since 1969 and the first cabinet level contact. [12] President Bush issues executive order lifting travel restrictions to Libya and authorizing US companies with pre-sanctions holdings in Libya to negotiate the terms of their re-entry. Action was delayed for two days after Libyan Prime Minister Skuri Ganem

denied Libya was responsible for Lockerbie bombing. Meeting US demands Libyan government releases statement calling Gannem's comment "inaccurate and regrettable" and reaffirming its responsibility. [12]

March - Libya hands over numerous documents detailing its chemical weapons program to the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW). OPCW's director general Rogelio Pfitrter praises Libya's cooperation with the organization. [12]

Shipment of remaining nuclear weapons equipment leaves Libya for the US. [12]

Prime Minister Tony Blair travels to Tripoli to meet with Qaddafi. After the meeting, Blair announces that Anglo-Dutch company Shell signed a \$200 million deal to explore oil and natural gas in Libya. [12]

April - In recognition of Libya's progress in dismantling its WMDs, President Bush terminates the application of Iran-Libya Sanctions Act (ILSA) with respect to Libya and the Department of Treasury modifies sanctions imposed on US companies under IEEPA to allow for the resumption of most commercial activities, financial transactions, and investments. Decision allows US oil companies to sign contracts and do business with Libya. However, Libya remains on the State Departments list of state sponsors of terrorism and subject to export-licensing for dual-use items. In addition, the freeze of Libyan assets and restrictions on direct air service between Libya and US remain in force. [12]

Qaddafi arrives in Brussels for two-day visit to meet with EU officials to discuss his country's eventual membership in the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership. [12]

June - US formally resumes diplomatic relations with Libya and opens Liaison Office in Tripoli. [12]

July - Members of World Trade Organization (WTO) agree to start membership negotiations with Libya. Consideration of Libya's application had been blocked by the US since November 2001. [12]

August - Libya agrees to pay \$35 million to non-American victims of bombing of a Berlin disco in 1986. Germany insists that EU arms embargo against Libya cannot be lifted until Tripoli pays compensation. [12]

September 20 - USA lifts all remaining sanctions on Libya, meaning that normal relations between the two countries have been reestablished. Libya remains on the list of state sponsors of terrorism. [1] [12]

European Union decides to formally lift suspended UN sanctions and a separate EU arms embargo imposed against Libya. Decision needs to be approved by EU Foreign Ministers on October 11. [12]

2005:

January - Libya's first auction of oil and gas exploration licences heralds the return of US energy companies for the first time in more than 20 years. [16]

Summary

1943-1950: UK, French & UN rule.

1951: "Independence".

1953-1970: UK & US bases. US oil companies.

1969: Qaddafi coup.

1970: US & UK out. Oil nationalized.

1972-1988: Meddling in Chad starts.

1973: Libya backs Arabs vs. Israel.

1975-1977: Unrest.

1977: Fighting with Egypt.

1978-1986: US et al. plot, accuse and attack. US embargo.

1988: Pan Am bombing.

1989: US shoots Libyan planes. UTA bombing. Rebel funding cut.

1991-2003: Sanctions imposed.

1996: Attempted coup.

1999: France convicts Libyans. Pan Am suspects handed over. French compensated.

2001: Dubious Pan Am verdict.

2003-2004: Compensation paid, sanctions lifted. Weapons programs halted.

Egypt

1914:

With the start of World War 1, Egypt is turned into a British protectorate, and Egypt was used as a British base during the war in the actions towards the Ottoman Empire. [1]

1922:

The Protectorate is ended. Egypt becomes a monarchy, with Fuad as king. [1]

1924:

January 12 - Wafd wins 179 of 211 parliamentary seats. [5]

March 15 - The King opens the first Egyptian constitutional parliament, with Saad Zaghlul as prime minister. [5]

November 19 - Sir Lee Stack, the British governor general of Sudan and commander of the Egyptian army, is assassinated in Cairo. General Edmund Allenby, the British high commissioner in Egypt, demands that Egypt: apologize, prosecute the assailants, pay

£500,000 indemnity, withdraw all troops from the Sudan, consent to an unlimited increase of irrigation in Sudan and end all opposition to the capitulations (Britain's demand of the right to protect foreign interests in the country). Zaghlul and his cabinet accept the first four terms and reject the last two. Zaghlul then resigns. [5]

1930s:

Ismail Sidqi emerges as the "strong man" of Egyptian politics and an ardent opponent of the Wafd. He who abolishes the constitution in 1930 and drafts another that enhances the power of the monarch. He forms his own party, Al Hizb ash Shaab. [5]

1936:

April 28 - King Fuad dies and is succeeded by his son, Faruk. [5]

May - The Wafd wins 89 percent of the vote and 157 seats in Parliament. [5]

August 26 - Draft Anglo-Egyptian Treaty is signed.

The treaty provides for an Anglo-Egyptian military and defense alliance that allows Britain to maintain a garrison of 10,000 men in the Suez Canal Zone. In addition, Britain is left in virtual control of Sudan. This contradicts the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium Agreement of 1899 that provided that Sudan be governed by Egypt and Britain jointly. In spite of the agreement, however, real power is in British hands. Egyptian army units had been withdrawn from Sudan in the aftermath of the Stack assassination, and the governor general is British. Nevertheless, Egyptian nationalists, and the Wafd particularly, continue to demand full Egyptian control of Sudan.

The treaty does provide for the end of the capitulations and the phasing out of the mixed courts. The British high commissioner is redesignated ambassador to Egypt, and when the British inspector general of the Egyptian army retires, an Egyptian officer is appointed to replace him.

In spite of these advances, the treaty does not give Egypt full independence, and its signing produces a wave of anti Wafdist and anti-British demonstrations. To many of its followers, in negotiating and signing the treaty the Wafd has betrayed the nationalist cause. Because of this perception and also because it had failed to develop and implement a program for social and economic reform, the Wafd declines in power and influence. Although it considers itself the representative of the nation, the Wafd fails to offer meaningful domestic programs to deal with the problems of under- and unemployment, high living costs, lack of industrial development, and unequal distribution of land. Thus, during the 1930s, support for the Wafd, particularly among students and urban middle-class professionals and civil servants, is eroded by more militant, paramilitary organizations like the Muslim Brotherhood (Al Ikhwan al Muslimun, also known as the Brotherhood) and Young Egypt (Misr al Fatat). [5]

1938:

The Al Hizb ash Shaab party merges with the Ittihad Party. [5]

Dissident members of the Wafd form the Saadist Party, named after Saad Zaghlul. [5]

1942:

February - Uncertain of the loyalty of Prime Minister Ali Maher and convinced that the king was intriguing against them, the British decide to entrust the Egyptian government to the Wafd. With the German army under General Erwin Rommel advancing toward Egypt, Lampson, the British ambassador, orders the king to ask Mustafa Nahhas, the Wafdist leader, to form a government. The incident clearly demonstrates that real power in Egypt resides in British hands and that the king and the political parties exist only so long as Britain is prepared to tolerate them. It also erodes popular support for the Wafd because it shows that the Wafd will make an alliance with the British for purely political reasons. [5]

1944:

The Wafdist government falls. [5]

1945:

The Wafd boycott the elections, which bring a government of Liberal Constitutionalists and Saadists to power. [5]

December - Egyptian prime minister Mahmud Nuqrashi, sends a note to the British demanding that they renegotiate the 1936 treaty and evacuate British troops from the country. Britain refuses. Riots and demonstrations by students and workers break out in Cairo and Alexandria, accompanied by attacks on British property and personnel. [5]

1946:

The new Egyptian prime minister, Ismail Sidqi, a driving force behind Egyptian politics in the 1930s and now seventy-one and in poor health, takes over negotiations with the British. The British Labour Party prime minister, Clement Atlee, agrees to remove British troops from Egyptian cities and bases by September 1949. The British have withdrawn their troops to the Suez Canal Zone when negotiations founder over the issue of Sudan. Britain say Sudan is ready for self-government while Egyptian nationalists are proclaiming "the unity of the Nile Valley," that is, that Sudan should be part of Egypt. [5]

December - Sidqi resigns and is succeeded by Nuqrashi. [5]

1947:

Nuqrashi refers the question of Sudan to the newly created United Nations (UN). [5]

1948:

The Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel by David Ben-Gurion in Tel Aviv. The Egyptians, like most Arabs, consider the State of Israel a creation of Western, specifically British, imperialism and an alien entity in the Arab homeland. The armies of the various Arab states, including Egypt, enter Palestine to save the country for the Arabs against what they consider Zionist aggression. When the war begins, the Egyptian army is poorly prepared and has no plan for coordination with the other Arab states. [5]

With the outbreak of the war against Israel, martial law is declared in Egypt, and the Muslim Brotherhood is ordered to dissolve. [5]

1949:

The Arabs are defeated by Israel, although the Arab Legion of Transjordan holds onto the Old City of Jerusalem and the West Bank, and Egypt saves a strip of territory around Gaza that becomes known as the Gaza Strip. [5]

Although there were individual heroic acts of resistance, the army did not perform well, and nothing could disguise the defeat or mitigate the intense feeling of shame. After the war, there are scandals over the inferior equipment issued to the military, and the king and government are blamed for treacherously abandoning the army. [5]

February - Muslim Brotherhood founder Hassan al Banna is assassinated, probably by agents of the security branch of the government.[5]

Gamal Abdul Nasser, who had commanded an army unit in Palestine, organizes a clandestine group inside the army called the Free Officers. After the war against Israel, the Free Officers begins to plan for a revolutionary overthrow of the government. Nine of the Free Officers form the Committee of the Free Officers' Movement. [5]

1950:

Nasser is elected chairman of the Committee of the Free Officers' Movement. [5]

January - The Wafd returns to power with Nahhas as prime minister. [5]

1951:

October - Nahhas introduces, and Parliament approves, decrees abrogating unilaterally the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of 1936 and proclaiming Faruk king of Egypt and Sudan. Egypt exults, with newspapers proclaiming that Egypt has broken "the fetters of British imperialism." The Wafd government gives way to pressure from the Brotherhood and leftist groups for militant opposition to the British. "Liberation battalions" are formed, and the Brotherhood and auxiliary police were armed. Food supplies to the Suez Canal Zone are blocked, and Egyptian workers are withdrawn from the base. A guerrilla war against the British in the Suez Canal Zone is undertaken by students and the Brotherhood. [5]

December - British bulldozers and Centurion tanks demolish fifty Egyptian mud houses to open a road to a water supply for the British army. [5]

1952:

January 25 - The British attack an Egyptian police barracks at Ismailiya (Al Ismailiyah) when its occupants refuse to surrender to British troops. Fifty Egyptians are killed and 100 wounded. [5]

January 26 - "Black Saturday" begins with a mutiny by police in Cairo in protest against the deaths of their colleagues. Concurrently, groups of people in Cairo go on a rampage. British property and other symbols of the Western presence are attacked. By the end of the day, 750 establishments valued at £50 million have been burned or

destroyed. Thirty persons are killed, including eleven British and other foreigners; hundreds were injured. [5]

The British believe there was official connivance in the rioting. Wafdist interior minister Fuad Siraj ad Din (also seen as Serag al Din) is accused of negligence by an Egyptian government report and dismissed. The king dismisses Nahhas, and four prime ministers hold office in the next six months. It becomes clear that the Egyptian ruling class has become unable to rule, and none of the radical nationalist groups is strong enough to take power. This power vacuum gives the Free Officers their opportunity. [5]

July 22 - the Free Officers realize that the king might be preparing to move against them. They decide to strike and seize power the next morning. [5]

July 26 - King Faruk, forced to abdicate in favor of his infant son, sails into exile on the same yacht on which his grandfather, Ismail, had left for exile about seventy years earlier. [5]

After the coup, the Free Officers ask Ali Mahir, a previous prime minister, to head the government. The Free Officers form the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC), which dictates policy to the civilian cabinet, abolish all civil titles such as pasha and bey, and order all political parties to purify their ranks and reconstitute their executive committees. [5]

Nasser desires vehemently to change his country; he believes that the British and the British-controlled king and politicians will continue to harm the interests of the majority of the population. Nasser and the other Free Officers have no particular desire for a military career, but Nasser had perceived that military life offered upward mobility and a chance to participate in shaping the country's future. The Free Officers are united by their desire to see Egypt freed of British control and a more equitable government established. Nasser and many of the others seem to be attached to no particular political ideology, although some, such as Khalid Muhi ad Din, are Marxists and a few sympathize with the Muslim Brotherhood. [5]

August - There is a violent strike involving more than 10,000 workers at the Misr Company textile factories at Kafr ad Dawwar in the Delta. Workers attack and set fire to part of the premises, destroy machinery, and clash with the police. The army is called in to put down the strike; several workers lose their lives, and scores are injured. The RCC set up a special military court that tries the arrested textile workers. Two are convicted and executed, and many others are given prison sentences. The regime reacted quickly and ruthlessly because it had no intention of encouraging a popular revolution that it could not control. It then arrests about thirty persons charged with belonging to the outlawed Communist Party of Egypt (CPE). The Democratic Movement for National Liberation, a faction of the CPE, reacts by denouncing the regime as a military dictatorship. [5]

September - Ali Mahir resigns, and Naguib becomes prime minister, minister of war, commander in chief, and president of the RCC. Muhammad Naguib was chosen by the RCC because he is a popular hero of the 1948 Arab-Israeli War and an officer trusted by the army. [5]

The RCC passes its first major domestic measure, the Agrarian Reform Law of 1952. The law is intended to abolish the power of the absentee landlord class, to encourage investment in industry, and to build support for the regime. The law limits landholdings to 200 feddans with the right to transfer another 100 to wives and children. The owners of the land requisitioned by the government receive about half the market value of the land at 1951 prices in the form of government bonds. The land is sold in lots of two to five feddans to tenants and small farmers owning less than five feddans. The small farmers have to buy the lots at a price equal to the compensation paid to the former owner. [5]

The RCC also deal with labour legislation and education. Initial legislation raises minimum wages, reduces working hours, and creates more jobs to reduce unemployment. Enforcement of these measures is lax until the early 1960s, however. In another effort to reduce unemployment, the RCC institutes a policy of providing employment in government service for all university graduates, a practice that swells the ranks of the bureaucracy and leaves many skilled people underused. The government increases its spending on education with the goal of educating all citizens. Rent control is established, and the government undertakes construction of housing for workers. These programs are expanded in the 1960s. [5]

The British government announces that there is no strategic alternative to the maintenance of the British base in the canal area. In the opinion of Anthony Eden, British foreign secretary, Egypt has to fit into a regional defense system, the Baghdad Pact, and agreement on this point will have to precede any withdrawal from the canal. [5]

The Baghdad Pact, bringing into alliance Britain, Turkey, Iran, Pakistan, and Iraq, is supposed to contain the Soviet Union its southern borders. The British government is attempting to force Egypt to join the alliance by refusing to discuss evacuation of the Suez Canal base until Egypt agrees. [5]

Egypt, however, will discuss only evacuation and eventual administration of the base, and the British slowly realize the drawbacks of holding the base without Egyptian acquiescence. [5]

1953:

January 17 - All political parties are dissolved and banned. A three-year transition period is proclaimed during which the RCC will rule. [5]

February - The Liberation Rally headed by Nasser is launched to serve as an organization for the mobilization of popular support for the new government. [5]

The Egyptian government agrees to a plan for self-determination for Sudan to be implemented over a three-year period. The Sudanese opt for independence rather than union with Egypt. [5]

June 18 - Egypt is declared a republic, and the monarchy is abolished, ending the rule of Muhammad Ali's dynasty. Naguib becomes the first president and also prime minister. Nasser becomes deputy prime minister and minister of interior. Other officers take over other ministries. [5]

Between 1952 and 1954, there is a struggle between Naguib and Nasser and his colleagues on the RCC for control of the government and over the future form of the government. Naguib is to have one vote on the council and is responsible for carrying out council decisions. He enjoys considerable popularity, and he develops his own following after conflicts involving policies arise between him and the RCC. [5]

1954:

February 23 - The conflicts between Naguib and Nasser come to a head when Naguib resigns. The popular outcry is so great that Naguib is reinstated as president of the republic. Nasser, however, takes the position of prime minister, previously held by Naguib, and remains president of the RCC. [5]

Nasser is an independent and popular nationalist. He is also anti-communist and strongly neutral. [2]

Because the Brotherhood will not refrain from opposing the RCC, Nasser outlaws the organization [5]

October - Nasser signs an agreement providing for the withdrawal of all British troops from the base within twenty months, with the provision that the British base can be reactivated in the event of an attack on Egypt by an outside power or an Arab League state or an attack on Turkey. [5]

The agreement gains a mixed reception among Egyptians. Despite the enthusiasm for ending imperialism, there are those who criticize Nasser for rewriting the old treaty. Nasser's chief critics are the communists and the Brotherhood. [5]

October 26 - While Nasser is justifying the canal agreement to a crowd in Alexandria a member of the Brotherhood attempts to kill him. The following day, in a show of courage, Nasser deliberately exposes himself to crowds in Alexandria, at stations en route to Cairo and in the capital. In Cairo he is met by an estimated 200,000 people, his popularity having been enormously strengthened by this incident. [5]

November - Nasser removes Naguib from the presidency after the leaders of the Brotherhood implicate him in the attack on Nasser. It is doubtful that he had any connection with the attack, but it gives Nasser the pretext he needs to remove Naguib. [5]

1955:

February - Eden visits Cairo seeking again to persuade Nasser to join the Baghdad Pact. Nasser again refuses. Nasser is increasingly attracted to the Nonaligned Movement that eschews membership in either the Western or the Soviet camp. Nasser is no particular friend of the Soviet Union, and the Communist Party remains outlawed in Egypt. It is Western imperialism and colonialism, however, that Egypt has been struggling against. [5]

Nasser also has become an admirer and friend of President Marshal Josip Broz Tito of Yugoslavia and Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru of India. Tito has survived by aligning himself neither with the West nor with the Soviet Union. Together, he and Nasser develop the concept of nonalignment, which entails avoiding both pro- and anti-Soviet pacts but does not prevent them from purchasing arms or receiving aid from either bloc. [5]

The Israeli army attacks Egyptian military outposts in Gaza. Thirty-nine Egyptians are killed. [5]

Nasser had previously made no serious attempt to narrow Israel's rapidly widening armaments lead, preferring to spend Egypt's meager hard currency reserves on development. Now he becomes convinced that Egypt had to arm to defend itself against Israel. At first he seeks Western aid, but he is rebuffed by the United States, France, and Britain. The United States government, especially the passionately anticommunist Secretary of State John Foster Dulles, clearly disapproves of Egypt's nonalignment and will make it difficult for Egypt to purchase arms. The French demand that Egypt cease aiding the Algerian national movement, which is fighting for independence from France. The British warn Nasser that if he accepts Soviet weapons, none will be forthcoming from Britain. [5]

April - Nasser attends the Conference of the Nonaligned Movement in Bandung, Indonesia. There he finds himself the center of attention as a Third World leader, accepted as a colleague by Chinese premier Chou En Lai, and greeted by crowds in the streets. Egyptian participation in the conference, along with other former colonies such as India, symbolizes not only the new postcolonial world order but also Egypt's own independence. [5]

September - Rejected by the West, Nasser negotiates an arms agreement with Czechoslovakia. This agreement marks the Soviet Union's first great breakthrough in its effort to undermine Western influence in the Middle East. Egypt receives no arms from the West and eventually becomes dependent on arms from the Soviet Union. [5]

1956:

Relations between Nasser and the West reach a crisis over plans to finance the Aswan High Dam. Construction of the dam was one of the earliest decisions of the Free Officers. It would increase both electrical generating power and irrigated land area. It would serve industry and agriculture and symbolize the new Egypt. The United States

agreed to give Egypt an unconditional loan of US\$56 million, and Britain agreed to lend Egypt US\$14 million. The British loan was contingent on the American loan. The World Bank also agreed to lend Egypt an additional US\$200 million. The World Bank loan stipulated that Egypt's budget be supervised by World Bank officials. To Nasser these conditions were insulting and were reminiscent of Europe's control over Egypt's finances in the 1870s.

While Nasser admitted to doubts about the West's sincerity, the United States became incensed over Egypt's decision to recognize communist China. Meanwhile, the Soviet Union was offering aid to Egypt in several forms, including a loan to finance the Aswan High Dam. [5]

July 19 - The United States withdraws its loan offer, and Britain and the World Bank follow suit. Nasser is returning to Cairo from a meeting with President Tito and Prime Minister Nehru when he hears the news. He is furious and decided to retaliate with an action that shocks the West and makes him the hero of the Arabs. [5]

July 26 - The fourth anniversary of King Faruk's exile, Nasser appears in Muhammad Ali Square in Alexandria where twenty months earlier an assassin had attempted to kill him. An immense crowd gathers, and he begins a three-hour speech from a few notes jotted on the back of an envelope. When Nasser says the code word, "de Lesseps," it is the signal for engineer Mahmud Yunis to begin the takeover of the Suez Canal.

The canal's owner was the Suez Canal Company, an international company with headquarters in Paris. Anthony Eden, the British prime minister, calls the nationalization of the canal "theft," and United States secretary of state Dulles says Nasser will have to be made to "disgorge" it. The French and British depend heavily on the canal for transporting oil supplies, and they feel that Nasser has become a threat to their remaining interests in the Middle East and Africa. Eden wants to launch a military action immediately but is informed that Britain is not in a position to do so. Both France and Britain freeze Egyptian assets in their countries and increase their military preparedness in the eastern Mediterranean.

Egypt promises to compensate the stockholders of the Suez Canal Company and to guarantee right of access to all ships, so it was difficult for the French and British to rally international support to regain the canal by force. The Soviet Union, its East European allies, and Third World countries generally support Egypt. The United States moves farther away from Britain and states that while it opposes the nationalization of the canal, it is against the use of force.

October 28 - Israeli troops cross the frontier into the Sinai Peninsula (also seen as Sinai), allegedly to destroy the bases of Egyptian commandos. The first sign of collusion between Israel and Britain and France comes on the same day, when an Anglo-French ultimatum is handed to Egypt and Israel to withdraw from both sides of the canal, before Israel have even reached the canal. The plan being that an Anglo-French force would

then occupy the canal to prevent further fighting and keep it open to shipping. Israeli prime minister David Ben-Gurion had agreed to the plan on condition that Britain and France first destroy the Egyptian air force. This is done by the British bombing the Egyptian force, and British and French paratroopers are dropped over Port Said and Port Fuad. The Egyptians put up fierce resistance. Ships are sunk in the canal to prevent transit. In the battle for Port Said, about 2,700 Egyptian civilians and soldiers are killed or wounded.

This action becomes known as the Tripartite Invasion or the 1956 War. Whereas the truth about the invasion eventually becomes known, at the time the Conservative government in London denies that it used Israel as an excuse for attacking Egypt. Eden, who has an intense personal dislike for Nasser, concealed the cooperation with Israel from his colleagues, British diplomats, and the United States.

Although it is invaded and occupied for a time, Egypt can claim to have emerged the victor. There is almost universal condemnation of the Tripartite Invasion. The Soviet Union threatens Britain and France with a rocket attack if they do not withdraw. The United States, angered because it had not been informed by its allies of the invasion, realizes it can not allow the Soviet Union to appear as the champion of the Third World against Western imperialism. Thus, the United States puts pressure on the British and French to withdraw. Faced with almost total opposition to the invasion, the anger of the United States, and the threat of the collapse of the pound sterling, the British agree to withdraw. [5]

Eisenhower later said if Britain had "done it quickly, we would have accepted it". [2]

November 6 - Severely condemned, Britain and France accept a cease-fire, as their troops are poised to advance the length of the canal.[5]

November 21 - A United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) is established and begins arriving in Egypt. The troops are stationed on the Egyptian side of the Egyptian-Israeli border as well as along the eastern coast of Sinai. Israel refuses to allow UN troops on its territory. The UN troops are stationed on the Gulf of Aqaba to ensure the free passage of Israeli shipping to Elat. The troops remained in Egypt until 1967, when their removal contributes to the outbreak of the June 1967 War. [5]

December 22 - The final evacuation of British and French troops takes place. Israel, which has occupied all of Sinai, is reluctant to withdraw. President Dwight D.

Eisenhower of the United States places great pressure on Israel to give up all its territorial acquisitions and even threatens sanctions. The Israelis do withdraw from Sinai, but they carry out a scorched earth policy, destroying roads, railroads, and military installations as they go. [5]

1957:

April - Egypt reopens the canal to shipping and runs it smoothly. It is open to all ships except those of Israel, and it remains open until the June 1967 War (Arab-Israeli war,

also known as the Six-Day War). Diplomatic relations between Egypt and Britain are not restored until 1969. [5]

Nasser has won a significant victory. The immediate effect is that Britain and France are finally out of Egypt. Nasser goes on to nationalize all other British and French assets in Egypt. The Egyptians now have full control of the canal and its revenues. The Suez crisis also makes Nasser the hero of the Arab world, a man who has stood up to Western imperialism and has prevailed. [5]

MI6 plans and carries out several assassination attempts against Nasser. The US were also involved, recruiting the Saudis and Iraq to help them. [2] [3] [9]

Britain had already made plans to assassinate Nasser, even before he nationalized the Suez Canal. [2]

1958:

For a variety of conflicting reasons, in January the political leaders of Syria ask Nasser for a union between their two countries. Nasser is skeptical at first and then insists on strict conditions for union, including a complete union rather than a federal state and the abolition of the Baath (Arab Socialist Resurrection) Party, then in power, and all other Syrian political parties. Because the Syrians believe that Nasser's ideas represent their own goals and that they would play a large role in the union, they agree to the conditions. A plebiscite is held in both countries, and Nasser is elected president. Cairo is designated the capital of the United Arab Republic. Nasser then visits Damascus, where he receives a tumultuous welcome. Arabs everywhere feel a new sense of pride. [5]

North Yemen joins with the United Arab Republic (Egypt and Syria) to form the United Arab States, which in reality is a paper alliance. [6]

Several Arab governments view Nasser with less enthusiasm, however. The conservative monarchies of Saudi Arabia and Jordan see his ideas as a potential threat to their own power. Nasser regards these monarchs as reactionaries and as obstacles to Arab unity. The United States moves to strengthen these regimes as well as the government of Lebanon in an effort to offset the influence of Egypt. [5]

1961:

July - The hastily conceived union of Syria and Egypt does not last long. There are too many problems to overcome: the two countries are not contiguous, their economies and populations are different, and the Syrian elite deeply resent being made subservient to Egyptian dictates. The deciding factor for the Syrian upper and middle classes comes in July when Nasser issues the so-called "socialist decrees" that call for widespread nationalizations. This is followed by the elimination of local autonomy and a plan for the unification of Egyptian and Syrian currencies, a move that would deal the final blow to Syrian economic independence. [5]

Nasser announces a list of nationalizations that cut more deeply into the private sector than has occurred in any country outside of Eastern Europe. The decrees nationalize all private banks, all insurance companies, and fifty shipping companies and firms in heavy and basic industries. Eighty-three companies are obliged to sell 50 percent or more of their shares to public agencies. A second agrarian reform law lowers the limit for an individual owner from 200 to 100 feddans. The nationalization program continues in successive waves through 1962 and 1963 and involves shipping companies, cotton-ginning factories, cotton-exporting companies, pharmaceutical producers, ocean and river transport companies, trucking companies, glass factories, and the largest book-publishing company in Egypt. Between 1952 and 1966, £E7 billion in shared and public assets are transferred to public ownership. [5]

The decrees also include legislation such as taxing gross incomes over £E5,000 at the rate of 90 percent, limiting base salaries of public sector directors to £E5,000, and limiting membership on all boards of directors to seven persons, two of whom must be workers. All joint-stock companies are required to place 5 percent of all profits in government bonds and to allot 10 percent to workers in cash and 15 percent to worker housing and community infrastructure. The working week is reduced to forty two hours, and the minimum wage is raised. Half of all seats in Parliament and on all elective bodies and worker-management boards are reserved for peasants and workers.[5]

September - There is also resentment in the army that parallels the resentment in civilian circles. On September 28, a group of army officers called the High Arab Revolutionary Command stage a successful coup and proclaim the separation of Syria from Egypt. Nasser decides not to resist and orders his troops to surrender. He blames Syria's defection on "reactionaries" and "agents of imperialism." [5]

December - Nasser formally ends the union with North Yemen. [5]

1962:

A military coup overthrows the royalist government in Yemen. Nasser intervenes to support the new republican government against the Saudi-backed royalists, who are attempting to regain control. [5]

The National Charter, essentially drawn up by Nasser, is promulgated. It establishes the basis of authority for the new constitution that is to follow. It shows a change in orientation from the nationalist goals of the original revolution and emphasizes that Egypt is an Arab nation based on Islamic principles. In addition, the Arab Socialist Union (ASU) is created to be the sole political party and a means of gathering the support of the masses. [5]

1964:

January - In spite of the problems that exist among the various Arab states, Nasser initiates Arab summit meetings that are held in January, March, and September in Cairo and Casablanca. The immediate reason for the summits is to find a way to block Israel's

plan to divert the waters of the Jordan River to irrigate the Negev Desert, a plan that would deprive the lower Jordan River valley of water. The Arab states draw up a plan that calls for diverting the Jordan River in Syria and Lebanon but does not implement it. [5]

The Arab summit meetings also take up other matters. League members agree to create a unified military command, the United Arab Command, with headquarters in Cairo, but this plan, like that of diverting the Jordan River, remains on paper. The Arab leaders do implement a plan to create the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) to be the primary organization of Palestinians. The Arab governments, especially Egypt, are becoming increasingly uneasy about the growing activities of Palestinian guerrillas, and they want to create an organization through which they can control such operations. They create the Palestine Liberation Army, whose units will be stationed and controlled by Egypt, Syria, and Iraq. Egypt exercises control of the PLO until 1969 when Yasir Arafat, the leader of the guerrilla organization called Al Fatah, takes control of the organization from Ahmad Shukairy, the choice of the Arab League governments. [5]

March - Elections are held for a new National Assembly from a list of candidates drawn up by the ASU. Immediately after the election, Nasser releases a draft constitution that functions until 1971. The constitution is based on the National Charter and emphasizes freedom, socialism, and unity. [5]

1966:

November - Egypt and Syria sign a five-year defence pact. [5]

Israeli forces cross into the West Bank of Jordan to destroy the village of As Samu in retaliation for increasing Palestinian guerilla raids.[5]

1967:

Israeli leaders repeatedly threatened to invade Syria and overthrow the Syrian government if guerrilla raids across the Syrian border do not stop. [5]

April - There are serious Israeli-Syrian air clashes over Syrian air space. Israeli prime minister Levi Eshkol warns that Damascus could be occupied if necessary. [5]

The Soviet Union warns Egypt that they have information that the Israelis have mobilized two brigades on the frontier. Nasser reacts by sending troops to the Israeli border, and Syria follows suit. Israel responds by deploying its own forces. It is clear that it will be difficult for Egypt to come to Syria's aid according to the terms of their agreement because of an obstacle--the presence of UNEF troops, stationed on the Egyptian side of the Egyptian-Israeli border since the 1956 War. A great deal of pressure to remove the troops has been put on Nasser by Arab critics such as King Hussein of Jordan and Crown Prince Faisal (Faisal ibn Abdul Aziz Al Saud) of Saudi Arabia, who accuse him of not living up to his responsibilities as an Arab leader. He has been accused of failing to match words with deeds and of hiding behind the UN shield rather than thinking about liberating the Palestinian homeland. [5]

May 16 - Nasser asks the UN to remove the UNEF from the Egyptian-Israeli frontier in Sinai. Once the UNEF has withdrawn, Nasser declares he is closing the Strait of Tiran, which connects the Gulf of Aqaba and the Red Sea, to Israeli shipping--a threat he never carries out. Israel, for its part, regards the withdrawal of the UNEF troops as a hostile act and the closing of the strait as a casus belli. Meanwhile, Jordan and Iraq sign defense agreements with Egypt. [5]

Field Marshal Amir, deputy supreme commander of the armed forces, and Shams ad Din Badran, the minister of defense, urge Nasser to strike first, saying the Egyptian army is strong enough to win. The Soviet Union and the United States urge Nasser not to go to war. Nasser publicly denies that Egypt will strike first and speaks of a negotiated peace if the Palestinians are allowed to return to their homeland and of a possible compromise over the Strait of Tiran. [5]

June 5-11 – On the morning of June 5, Israel launches a full-scale attack on Egypt, Jordan, and Syria. In three hours, at least 300 of Egypt's 430 combat aircraft are destroyed, many on the ground as the pilots do not have time to take off. Israeli ground forces start a lightning strike into Sinai and by June 8 have reached the Suez Canal. On that day, both sides accept a UN Security Council call for a cease-fire. By June 11, the Arab defeat is total; Israel now holds all of historic Palestine, including the Old City of Jerusalem, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip, as well as Sinai and part of the Golan Heights of Syria. [1] [5]

Egypt's losses in the war are enormous: approximately 10,000 soldiers and 1,500 officers killed, 5,000 soldiers and 500 officers captured, 80 percent of military equipment destroyed. Sinai is under Israeli control, and the Suez Canal is blocked and closed to shipping.

June 9 - Nasser speaks on television and takes full responsibility for the debacle. He resigns as president, but the Egyptian people pour into the streets to demonstrate their support for him. The cabinet and the National Assembly vote not to accept the resignation, and Nasser withdraws it.

Soon after the cease-fire, there is a broad shake-up in the military and the government. Field Marshal Amir and Minister of Defense Badran, who had been chosen for the post by Amir, are forced to resign. General Muhammad Fawzi becomes commander in chief, and Nasser retains the position of supreme commander. [5]

June 19 - Nasser enlarges his political powers by assuming the role of prime minister. He names a twenty-eight-member cabinet and takes control of the ASU as secretary general. Ali Sabri, the vice president and secretary general of the ASU until that time, is named deputy prime minister in the new cabinet. [5]

August 25 - Amir and fifty other high-ranking military and civilian officials are arrested and accused of plotting to overthrow Nasser. Approximately two weeks later, the government announces that Amir, who was once considered Nasser's closest associate

among the Free Officers, has committed suicide by taking poison while under house arrest. [5]

September - The first move of the Arabs after the June 1967 War is to hold a summit conference in Khartoum. At that meeting, Nasser and Faisal come to an agreement: Nasser will stop his attempts to destabilize the Saudi regime, and in return Saudi Arabia will give Egypt the financial aid needed to rebuild its army and retake the territory lost to Israel. At the conference, the Arab leaders are united in their opposition to Israel and proclaim what become known as "the three no's" of the Khartoum summit: no peace with Israel, no negotiations, no recognition. [5]

November - At the UN, the Security Council unanimously adopts Resolution 242, which provides a framework for settlement of the June 1967 War. This resolution, still not implemented, declares that the acquisition of territory by force is unacceptable. The resolution calls for Israel to withdraw "from territories occupied in the recent conflict," for the termination of the state of belligerency, and for the right of all states in the area "to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries." Freedom of navigation through international waterways in the area is to be guaranteed, and a just settlement of the "refugee" problem is to be attained. Gunnar Jarring, a Swedish diplomat at the UN, starts a series of journeys in the Middle East in an attempt to bring both sides together. [5]

Egypt's intervention in Yemen has proved to be a great drain on Egypt's financial and military resources. At the height of its involvement, Egypt had 75,000 troops in Yemen. Egypt's intervention also increased inter-Arab tensions, especially between Saudi Arabia and Egypt. Egypt's defeat at the hands of Israel in the June 1967 War obliges it to withdraw its forces from Yemen and to seek peace. A settlement is achieved at a conference in Khartoum. [5]

1968:

March - widespread demonstrations by students and workers break out in Cairo, Alexandria, and the industrial town of Hulwan. The demonstrations are provoked by the decision of a military tribunal that convicted two air force commanders of negligence in the June 1967 War and acquitted two others. The demonstrators demand stiffer sentences for the four officers. A sit-in by students at Cairo University ends only when the government promises to retry the officers and releases arrested demonstrators. [5] Although the decision of the military tribunal is the immediate cause of the demonstrations, the underlying cause is popular frustration with the government repression over the preceding sixteen years and the lack of popular participation in the government. Nasser declares his desire to satisfy popular demands and promises to present a plan of action. [5]

May - The new plan, is approved by a referendum. It calls for a new constitution that will reform the ASU, grant parliament control over the government, and allow greater

personal and press freedom. Popular elections are to be held for the National Assembly. [5]

Egypt agrees to accept resolution 242 if Israel agrees to evacuate all occupied areas. By accepting the resolution, Egypt for the first time implicitly recognizes the existence--and the right to continued existence-- of Israel. In return Egypt gains a UN commitment to the restoration of Sinai. The PLO reject the resolution because it refers to the Palestinians only as "refugees" and thus appears to dismiss Palestinian demands for self-determination and national rights. Syria characterizes the plan as a "sellout" of Arafat and the PLO. [5]

Israel rejects Jarring's mission as meaningless, insisting that negotiations should precede any evacuation. Israel also objects to Nasser's support for the PLO, whose objective is the establishment of a secular state in all "liberated" Palestinian territory. Nasser replies that if Israel refuses to support Resolution 242 while Egypt accepts it, he has no choice "but to support courageous resistance fighters who want to liberate their land." [5]

October - Nasser's reform of the existing political system is instituted through the formulation of new laws and the election of new members to all of the organs of the ASU. This initial phase of his plan is completed during October, with the election of the reorganized Supreme Executive Committee (SEC) of the ASU. Only eight people receive the required majority of votes, and the election of the remaining two members is postponed. The SEC organizes itself into five permanent committees: political affairs, chaired by Anwar as Sadat; administration, chaired by Ali Sabri; internal affairs, chaired by Abdul Muhsin Abu an Nur; economic development, chaired by Muhammad Labib Shuqayr; and culture and information, chaired by Diya Muhammad Daud. Nasser heads the SEC, and its three remaining members are Husayn ash Shafii, General Muhammad Fawzi, and Kamal Ramzi Stinu. [5]

November - This reorganization proves unsatisfactory to those who had hoped for an expansion of freedom and democracy. Thus, in November, demonstrations break out again and cries of "Nasser resign" are reported. Several demonstrators are killed or wounded in clashes with the police. Universities and secondary schools are again closed. The demonstrators are expressing popular frustration over the failure of the government to implement the program approved by the referendum. Nasser apparently is unwilling or unable to widen popular participation in the government. [5]

1969:

Yasir Arafat, the leader of the guerrilla organization called Al Fatah, takes control of the PLO from Ahmad Shukairy, the choice of the Arab League governments. [5]

March - Start of the "War of Attrition" which lasts until August 1970. Hoping to use Egypt's superiority in artillery to cause unacceptable casualties to Israeli forces dug in along the canal, Nasser orders Egyptian guns to begin a steady pounding of the Israeli

positions. Israel responds by constructing the Bar-Lev Line, a series of fortifications along the canal, and by using the one weapon in which it has absolute superiority, its air force, to silence the Egyptian artillery. Having accomplished this with minimal aircraft losses, Israel embarks on a series of deep penetration raids into the heartland of Egypt with its newly acquired American-made Phantom bombers. By January 1970, Israeli planes are flying at will over eastern Egypt. [5]

November - The disagreement on the Palestinian issue is compounded when, throughout 1969, tensions grow between the Lebanese government and Palestinian groups within Lebanon's borders, and serious clashes break out. Syria condemns Lebanese action. Nasser invites both parties to Cairo, and an agreement is negotiated to end the hostilities. [5]

1970:

January - To help Egypt against Israel in the War of Attrition Nasser flies to Moscow and asks the Soviet Union to establish an air defense system manned by Soviet pilots and antiaircraft forces protected by Soviet troops. To obtain Soviet aid, Nasser has to grant the Soviet Union control over a number of Egyptian airfields as well as operational control over a large portion of the Egyptian army. The Soviet Union sends between 10,000 and 15,000 Soviet troops and advisers to Egypt, and Soviet pilots fly combat missions. A screen of surface-to-air missiles (SAMs) is set up, and Soviet pilots join Egyptian ones in patrolling Egyptian air space. [5]

June - The Rogers Plan, put forth by United States secretary of state William Rogers, starts a dialogue that eventually leads to the long-awaited cease-fire in the War of Attrition along the Suez Canal. Basically, the plan is a modification of Resolution 242. Shortly after the plan is announced, from June 29 to July 17, Nasser visits Moscow. Discussions are held on the Rogers Plan, a newly formed Moscow peace plan, and the future of Soviet-Egyptian relations. [5]

July - After his return to Egypt, Nasser declares a major policy shift based on his assertion that Egypt must be respected for doing what it can on its own because the other Arab states are not prepared to wage war with Israel. This policy shift sets the stage for Egypt's acceptance of the Rogers Plan, to the surprise of Israel and the consternation of many Arab states that feared Egypt would sign a separate peace agreement with Israel. Jordan, however, follows Egypt's lead and accepts the plan. [5]

August - Israel accepts the Rogers Plan. Egyptian-Israeli fighting halts along the Suez Canal on August 7, in accordance with the first phase of the plan, and a ninety-day truce begins. Palestinian guerrilla groups in opposition to the cease-fire continue to engage in small-scale actions on the Jordanian-Syrian-Lebanese fronts. [5]

September - PLO leader Arafat's open criticism of the parties accepting the truce leads Nasser to close down the Voice of Palestine radio station in Cairo and to terminate most of the material support Egypt provides to the PLO. In addition, many PLO activists are

expelled from Egypt. Within a month, the guerrillas have effectively undermined progress on the Rogers Plan by a series of acts, including the hijacking of five international airplanes in early September, thus triggering the Jordanian civil war this month. [5]

King Hussein launches a major Jordanian military drive against the Jordan-based Palestinian guerrilla groups on September 14, partly out of fear that their attacks on Israel will sabotage the truce, but primarily because the guerrillas are becoming powerful enough to challenge his government. Nasser's position on these events, as in the preceding year when hostilities broke out between the Palestinians and Lebanese, is based on a desire to stop any form of intra-Arab conflict. He is extremely angry when Syria sends an armoured force into Jordan to support the guerrillas. The United States and Israel offer assistance to the beleaguered King Hussein. [5]

Nasser calls for a meeting in Cairo to stop the civil war. The Arab summit finally comes about on September 26 after bloody military engagements in which Jordan decisively repulses the Syrians and seems to be defeating the PLO, although PLO forces are not pushed out of Jordan until July 1971. On September 27, Hussein and Arafat agree to a fourteen-point cease-fire under Nasser's mediation, officially ending the war. [5]

September 28 - The effort by Nasser to bring about this unlikely reconciliation between two bitter enemies was enormous. He was by then a tired and sick man. He had been suffering from diabetes since 1958 and from arteriosclerosis of the leg. He had treatment in the Soviet Union, and his doctors had warned him to avoid physical and emotional strain. He had ignored their advice and suffered a heart attack in September 1969. The strain of the summit was too much. He feels ill at the airport on September 28 when bidding good-bye to Arab leaders and returns home to bed. He has another heart attack and dies in the afternoon. [5]

When news of Nasser's death is announced, Egyptians take to the streets by the tens of thousands to express shock and grief at the death of their leader. In spite of the doubts that many Egyptians may feel about the path on which Nasser has taken Egypt, the sense of loss is overwhelming, and there is great uncertainty about the future. [5]

October 3 - The ASU recommends that Sadat be nominated to succeed Nasser as president. [5]

October 15 – Vice-president Anwar as-Sadat becomes the new president, after a referendum where he gains 90% of the ballots. There are no opposing candidates. [1]

[5] Sadat moves very cautiously at first and pledges to continue Nasser's policies. [5]

1971:

February 4 - Sadat announces a new peace initiative that contains a significant concession: he is willing to accept an interim agreement with Israel in return for a partial Israeli withdrawal from Sinai. A timetable would then be set for Israel's withdrawal from the rest of the occupied territories in accordance with UN Resolution 242. Egypt would

reopen the canal, restore diplomatic relations with the United States, which had been broken after the June 1967 War, and sign a peace agreement with Israel through Jarring. Sadat's initiative falls on deaf ears in Tel Aviv and in Washington, which is not disposed to assisting the Soviet Union's major client in the region. Disillusioned by Israel's failure to respond to his initiative, Sadat rejects the Rogers Plan and the cease-fire. [4] [5]

May 2 - Sadat dismisses Ali Sabri, the vice president and head of the ASU. [5]

May 15 - Sadat announced that Sabri and more than 100 others have been arrested and charged with plotting a coup against the government. Also charged in the plot are Sharawy Jumaa, minister of interior and head of internal security, and Muhammad Fawzi, minister of war. These men are considered to be left-leaning and pro-Soviet. They are arrested with other important figures of the Nasser era. They had all resigned their positions on May 13, apparently in preparation for a takeover. But anticipating their moves, Sadat outflanked them and was then able to assert himself and appoint his own followers, rather than Free Officer colleagues, to leadership positions. [5]

This action, which becomes known as the Corrective Revolution, begins Sadat's move away from Nasser's policies. He announces new elections and a complete reorganization of the ASU. The armed forces pledge their support for Sadat on May 15. There are also some demonstrations in the streets in support of Sadat's moves. [5]

May 27 - Sadat signs the first Soviet-Egyptian Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation. He later explains that he did it to allay Soviet fears provoked by his ousting of Ali Sabri and the others and to speed up deliveries of Soviet military supplies. Even as he is preparing to break the stalemate with Israel, however, he is already thinking of expelling the Soviet advisers. [5]

September 11 - A new constitution is presented by Sadat and approved by the electorate. The previous constitution had been issued as "provisional" in 1964. The Constitution of 1971 provides additional guarantees against arbitrary arrest, seizure of property, and other Nasser-era abuses. The responsibility of the People's Assembly, which replaces the National Assembly, is widened, but the president clearly retains dominant authority. Sadat dissolves the old legislature on September 8 and on September 19, he forms a new cabinet. [5]

October 27 - Competitive, but not totally free, elections are held for the People's Assembly. [5]

1972:

May - President Nixon meets Soviet president Leonid Brezhnev, and Sadat is convinced that the two superpowers will try to prevent a new war in the Middle East and that a position of stalemate--no peace, no war--has been reached. For Sadat this position is intolerable. The June 1967 War had been a humiliating defeat for the Arabs. Without a military victory, any Arab leader who agreed to negotiate directly with Israel

would do so from a position of extreme weakness. At the same time, the United States and the Soviet Union are urging restraint and caution. However, the United States refuses to put pressure on Israel to make concessions, and the Soviet Union, which has broken off diplomatic relations with Israel as a result of the June 1967 War, has no influence over Israel. Internally, the Egyptian economy is being steadily drained by the confrontation with Israel. Economic problems are becoming more serious because of the tremendous amount of resources directed toward building up the military since the June 1967 War, and it is clear that Sadat will have to demonstrate some results from this policy. In the last half of 1972, there are large-scale student riots, and some journalists came out publicly in support of the students. Thus, Sadat feels under increasing pressure to go to war against Israel as the only way to regain the lost territories. [5]

July 17 - Sadat expels the 15,000 Soviet advisers from Egypt. [5]

Violent clashes between police and Egyptian students. These disturbances continued into 1973. [1]

1973:

March 26 - Sadat assumes the additional title of prime minister and forms a new government designed to continue preparations for a confrontation with Israel. [5]

October 6 - Egyptian forces launch a successful surprise attack across the Suez Canal. The Syrians carry out an attack on Israel at the same time. For the Arabs, it was the fasting month of Ramadan, and for Israel it was Yom Kippur. The crossing of the canal, an astounding feat of technology and military acumen, takes only four hours to complete. The crossing was code-named Operation Badr after the first victory of the Prophet Muhammad, which culminated in his entry into Mecca in 630. [5] With the aid of USA, manages Israel to hold back, but loses a strip of Sinai along the Suez Canal, and half way down the Western coast of Sinai. [1]

October 17 - The Arab oil producers announce a program of reprisals against the Western backers of Israel: a 5 percent cutback in output, followed by further such reductions every month until Israel has withdrawn from all the occupied territories and the rights of the Palestinians have been restored. The next day, President Nixon formally asks Congress for US\$2.2 billion in emergency funds to finance the massive airlift of arms to Israel that is already under way. The following day, King Faisal of Saudi Arabia decrees an immediate 10 percent cutback in Saudi oil and, five days after that, the complete suspension of all shipments to the United States. [5]

Israel is shocked and unprepared for the war. After the initial confusion and near panic in Israel followed by the infusion of United States weaponry, Israel is able to counterattack and succeeds in crossing to the west bank of the canal and surrounding the Egyptian Third Army. With the Third Army surrounded, Sadat appeals to the Soviet Union for help. Soviet prime minister Alexei Kosygin believes he has obtained the

American acceptance of a cease-fire through Henry Kissinger, United States secretary of state. [5]

October 22 - The UN Security Council passes Resolution 338, calling for a cease-fire by all parties within twelve hours in the positions they occupy. Egypt accepts the cease-fire, but Israel, alleging Egyptian violations of the cease-fire, completes the encirclement of the Third Army to the east of the canal. By nightfall on October 23, the road to Suez, the Third Army's only supply line, is in Israeli hands, cutting off two divisions and 45,000 men. [5]

The Soviet Union is furious, believing it has been doublecrossed by the United States. [5]

October 24 - The Soviet ambassador hands Kissinger a note from Brezhnev threatening that if the United States is not prepared to join in sending forces to impose the cease-fire, the Soviet Union will act alone. The United States takes the threat very seriously and responds by ordering a grade-three nuclear alert, the first of its kind since President John F. Kennedy's order during the Cuban missile crisis of 1962. The threat comes to naught, however, because a UN emergency force arrives in the battle zone to police the ceasefire. [5]

Meanwhile, Syria feels betrayed by Egypt because Sadat did not inform his ally of his decision to accept the cease-fire. Two days after Sadat, President Hafiz al Assad of Syria accepts the cease-fire as well. [5]

Neither side has won a clear-cut victory, but for the Egyptians, it is a victory nonetheless. The Arabs have taken the initiative in attacking the Israelis and have shown that Israel is not invincible. The stinging defeats of 1948, 1956, and 1967 seem to have been avenged. [5]

The Israelis, however, paid a heavy price for merely holding their attackers to an inconclusive draw. In three weeks, they lost 2,523 personnel, two and a half times as many, proportionally speaking, as the United States lost in the ten years of the Vietnam war. The war has a devastating effect on Israel's economy and is followed by savage austerity measures and drastically reduced living standards. For the first time, Israelis witness the humiliating spectacle of Israeli prisoners, heads bowed, paraded on Arab television. Also, for the first time captured Israeli hardware was exhibited in Cairo. [5] In Egypt the casualties include about 8,000 killed. The effect of the war on the morale of the Egyptian population, however, is immense. Sadat's prestige grows tremendously. The war, along with the political moves Sadat has made previously, mean that he is totally in control and able to implement the programs he wants. He is the hero of the day. [5]

December - Negotiations toward a permanent cease-fire begin. [5]

1974:

January - Kissinger begins his shuttle diplomacy between Egypt and Israel. On January 18, the first disengagement agreement is signed separately by Sadat and Golda Meir. [5]

April - Sadat presents what he calls the October Working Paper, which describes his vision of Egypt's future. The paper commits Egypt to building a strong country, continuing the confrontation with Israel, working toward Arab unity, and playing a leading role in world politics. Perhaps the most important part of Sadat's paper is the announcement of a new economic policy that comes to be called *infitah*, (opening or open door). [5]

This new economic policy allows increased foreign investment in Egypt, greater participation by the private sector in the Egyptian economy, more freedom for individuals to develop their own wealth and property, and relaxed currency regulations so that Egyptians can have access to foreign currency. The new direction gradually changes Egypt in many ways: the shops fill with foreign consumer goods; foreign companies build huge modern hotels; and new wealth is displayed in a way that has not been seen in Egypt since before the 1952 Revolution. Doubts begin to be expressed, however, about how much all this is actually doing for the Egyptian people since foreign investment in long-term agricultural or industrial projects is lacking. [5]

September 1 - A second disengagement agreement is signed. The agreement provided for a partial Israeli withdrawal in Sinai and limits the number of troops and kinds of weapons Egypt can have on the eastern side of the canal. Israel agrees to withdraw from the Abu Rudays oil fields in western Sinai, which produce a small but important revenue for Egypt. Egypt also agrees not to use force to achieve its aims, a concession that in effect makes Egypt a nonbelligerent in the Arab-Israeli conflict. As the price for its agreement, Israel extracts important concessions from the United States. Kissinger's secret promises to Israel include meeting Israel's military needs in any emergency, preserving Israel's arms superiority by providing the most advanced and sophisticated weaponry, and pledging not to recognize or to negotiate with the PLO. [5]

1975:

Sadat permits the establishment of three groupings in the ASU to express the opinions of the left, the right, and the center of the regime. By 1976 the three platforms are permitted, within established guidelines, to act as separate political entities, but each group needs to elect a minimum of twelve deputies to the People's Assembly to be recognized. The leftist group is known as the National Progressive Unionist Organization (NPUO--later NPUP when it is allowed to become a party) led by Khalid Muhi ad Din, a Free Officer and a Marxist. The right-wing group is the Socialist Liberal Organization (SLO--later the Liberal or Ahrar Party) led by Mustafa Kamil Murad. The center group is known as the Egyptian Arab Socialist Organization. The country's main

political forces, the Wafd, the Muslim Brotherhood, the Nasserites, and the communists, are not allowed representation. [5]

June 5 - Reopening of the Suez Canal, after 8 years of being closed. This is a great moment for Sadat, not only politically but economically, because the canal provides Egypt with considerable revenues [1] [5]

September - Agreements with Israel on disengagement of military forces. [1]

1976:

March 15 - The movement away from a one-party system matches Egypt's turn away from the Soviet Union and toward the United States. Sadat hopes that his new political and economic policies will attract large sums of private American investment. He also feels that the United States is the only country that can pressure Israel into a final peace settlement. To enhance relations with the United States and to respond to the Soviet Union's refusal to reschedule repayments of Egypt's debt, Sadat unilaterally renounces the Soviet-Egyptian Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation. [5]

October - In the election, not unexpectedly, the progovernment center platform of the ASU wins an overwhelming majority, 280 seats; the SLP win 12 and the NPUP only 2. Independent candidates win forty-eight seats. When he opens the new assembly, Sadat announces that the platforms will become political parties. [5]

Sadat, in an effort to solve the country's economic problems, asks the World Bank for loans. [5]

1977:

January - In response to the World Bank's criticisms of public subsidies, the government announces that it is ending subsidies on flour, rice, and cooking oil and canceling bonuses and pay increases. [5]

January 18-19 - Egyptians take to the streets in antigovernment riots that demonstrate their disillusionment with infitah and the nepotism and corruption it has spawned. There is rioting in towns from Aswan to Alexandria, variously described as the biggest upheaval since the 1919 riots against the British, or a second Black Saturday. It is the first time the army has been brought into the streets since 1952. For thirty-six hours, the rioters unleash their pent-up fury on targets that symbolize the yawning gap between the haves and have-nots, the frivolity and corruption of the ruling class, and the incompetence and insensitivity of the administration. The rioters shout slogans like, "Hero of the crossing, where is our breakfast?" and "Thieves of the infitah, the people are famished." There are also shouts of "Nasser, Nasser." In the clashes between demonstrators and police, 800 persons are killed, and several thousands are wounded, according to unofficial estimates. The rioting ends when the government cancels the price increases while retaining 10 percent wage increases and other benefits for public sector employees. [5]

July - Sadat announces that he will establish his own party, the National Democratic Party (NDP), signaling the end of the Arab Socialist Union, which is merged with the NDP. Sadat also wants a more pliable left-wing opposition party, so the Socialist Labor Party (Amal) was founded with Sadat's brother-in-law as vice president. [5]

November 19 - The outlook for peace between Israel and Egypt is not good. Israel still holds most of Sinai, and negotiations have been at a stalemate since the second disengagement agreement in 1975. Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin is a hard-liner and a supporter of Israeli expansion. He approves the development of settlements on the occupied West Bank and reprisal raids into southern Lebanon. He also refuses to approve any negotiation with the PLO. After the food riots of January, Sadat decides that something dramatic has to be done, and so, in response to an invitation from Begin, Sadat journeys to Jerusalem. [5]

He speaks in the Knesset, the national assembly, where he signals what needs to be done to reach peace: Israeli withdrawal and the establishment of a Palestinian state. [1] The world was amazed by this move. The reaction in Egypt is generally favorable. Many Egyptians accept peace with Israel if it means regaining Egyptian territories. They are tired of bearing the major burden of the confrontation and, considering the sacrifices Egypt has already made, feel that the Palestinians are ungrateful. Of the Arab countries, only Sudan, Oman, and Morocco are favorable to Sadat's trip. In the other Arab states, there is shock and dismay. The Arabs feel that Sadat has betrayed the cause of Arab solidarity and the Palestinians. In spite of Sadat's denials, the Arabs believe that he intends to go it alone and make a separate peace with Israel. [5]

December - Egypt and Israel began peace negotiations in Cairo. These negotiations continue on and off over the next several months. [5]

1978:

September - By now 1978 it is clear that the negotiations with Israel are deadlocked. President Jimmy Carter has become closely involved in the negotiations. In an effort to break the deadlock, Carter invites Sadat and Begin to Camp David. The negotiations are tense and almost break down several times. [5]

September 17 - Carter announces that the Camp David Accords have been reached. They consist of two parts, the Framework for Peace in the Middle East and the Framework for the Conclusion of a Peace Treaty between Israel and Egypt. [5]

1979:

March 26 - The Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty is signed. Israel agrees to withdraw from Sinai within three years of the treaty; normal diplomatic and trade relations are to be established, and Israeli ships will pass unhindered through the canal. Egypt, however, will not have full sovereignty over Sinai. A multinational observer force will be stationed in Sinai, and the United States will monitor events there.[5]

The Framework for Peace in the Middle East is an elaboration of the "autonomy" plan that Begin had put forward nine months before. A "self-governing authority" is to be established for a five-year transitional period, by the third year of which negotiations are to begin to determine the final status of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip and to conclude a peace treaty between Israel and Jordan. Within one month of the ratification of the treaty, Egypt and Israel are supposed to begin negotiations for the establishment of the "elected self-governing authority" in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip. They set themselves the goal of completing the negotiations within one year so that elections can be held "as expeditiously as possible." [5]

May 12 - Shortly before the autonomy talks are supposed to begin, deputy Geula Cohen, a Zionist extremist, introduces a bill, adopted by the Knesset, that declares Jerusalem to be Israel's united and indivisible capital. [5]

The treaty deadlines pass, Begin makes his position perfectly clear: Jerusalem will remain undivided; settlement will continue, and autonomy will never become sovereignty. [5]

The Camp David Accords make Sadat a hero in Europe and the United States. The reaction in Egypt is generally favorable, but there is opposition from the left and from the Muslim Brotherhood. In the Arab world, Sadat is almost universally condemned. Only Sudan issues an ambivalent statement of support. The Arab states suspend all official aid and severed diplomatic relations. Egypt is expelled from the Arab League, which it was instrumental in founding, and from other Arab institutions. Saudi Arabia withdraws the funds it had promised for Egypt's purchase of American fighter aircraft. [5] [1]

In the West, where Sadat is extolled as a hero and a champion of peace, the Arab rejection of the Camp David Accords is often confused with the rejection of peace. The basis for Arab rejection was opposition to Egypt's separate peace with Israel. Although Sadat insisted that the treaty provided for a comprehensive settlement of the Arab-Israeli conflict, the Arab states and the PLO saw it as a separate peace, which Sadat had vowed he would not sign. The Arabs believed that only a unified Arab stance and the threat of force would persuade Israel to negotiate a settlement of the Palestinian issue that would satisfy Palestinian demands for a homeland. Without Egypt's military power, the threat of force evaporates because no single Arab state is strong enough militarily to confront Israel alone. Thus, the Arabs feel betrayed and dismayed that the Palestinian issue, the core of the Arab-Israeli conflict, will remain an unresolved, destabilizing force in the region. [5]

The Camp David Accords bring peace to Egypt but not prosperity. With no real improvement in the economy, Sadat becomes increasingly unpopular. His isolation in the Arab world is matched by his increasing remoteness from the mass of Egyptians. While Sadat's critics in the Arab world remain beyond his reach, increasingly he reacts to criticism at home by expanding censorship and jailing his opponents. In addition,

Sadat subjects the Egyptians to a series of referenda on his actions and proposals that he invariably wins by more than 99 percent of the vote. For example, in May 1979 the Egyptian people approve the Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty by 99.9 percent of those voting. [5]

1980's:

As debt increases, Egypt becomes vulnerable to pressure from creditors who want it to repay the debts and restructure the economy. During the 1980s, prolonged, tug-of-war-like negotiations occur between Egypt and various creditors represented by the IMF and the Paris Club. [5]

1980:

January - Diplomatic relations with Israel are established. [1]

May - A nonpartisan body of citizens charges Sadat with superseding his own constitution. Their manifesto declares, "The style in which Egypt is governed today is not based on any specific form of government. While it is not dictatorship, Nazism, or fascism, neither is it democracy or pseudodemocracy." [5]

1981:

September - Sadat orders the biggest roundup of his opponents since he came to power, at least 1,500 people according to the official figure but more according to unofficial reports. The Muslim Brotherhood bear the brunt of the arrests. The supreme guide of the Brotherhood, Umar Tilmasani, and other religious militants are arrested. Sadat also withdraws his "recognition" of the Coptic pope Shenudah III, banishes him to a desert monastery, and arrests several bishops and priests. Also arrested are such prominent figures as journalist Mohamed Heikal, and Wafd leader Fuad Siraj ad Din. Sadat orders the arrest of several SLP leaders and the closing of Ash Shaab (The People) newspaper. A referendum on his purge shows nearly 99.5 percent of the electorate approve. [5]

October 6 - While observing a military parade commemorating the eighth anniversary of the October 1973 War, Sadat is assassinated by members of Al Jihad movement, a group of religious extremists. Sadat's assassin is Lieutenant Colonel Khalid al Islambuli. The conspirators are arrested and tried. [5]

Whereas a number of Western leaders, including three former United States presidents, attend Sadat's funeral, only one member of the Arab League is represented by a head of state, Sudan. Only two, Oman and Somalia, send representatives. In Egypt 43 million people go on with the celebration of Id al Adha, the Feast of Sacrifice, as if nothing has happened. There are no throngs in the streets, grieving and lamenting, as there were when Nasser died. In the Arab world, Sadat's death is greeted with jubilation. [5]

October 24 - Sadat's handpicked successor, Husni Mubarak, is overwhelmingly approved in a national referendum. Sadat appointed Mubarak vice president of the state in 1975 and of the NDP in 1978. Mubarak, who was born in 1928 in Lower Egypt and

had spent his career in the armed forces, was not a member of the Free Officers' movement. He had trained as a pilot in the Soviet Union and became air force chief of staff in 1969 and deputy minister of war in 1972. [5]

November - In a speech to the People's Assembly, Mubarak outlines the principles of his government's policy and speaks about the future he wants for Egypt. Infitah will continue, and there will be no return to the restrictive days of Nasser. Mubarak calls for an infitah of production, however, rather than of consumption, that will benefit all of society and not just the wealthy few. Food subsidies will remain, and imports of unnecessary luxury goods will be curtailed. Opposition parties will be allowed. The peace treaty with Israel will be observed. [5]

1982:

April - Israel withdraws from all of Sinai, except Taba. A multinational force of observers takes up positions in Sinai to monitor the peace. Egypt is allowed to station only one army division in Sinai. [1] [5]

Two of the conspirators involved in the assassination of Sadat are shot and three hanged. [5]

1983:

Arafat meets Mubarak in Cairo after the PLO leader has been expelled from Lebanon under Syrian pressure. [5]

1984:

Egypt reenter the Islamic Conference organization. [1] [5]

At the election five parties are allowed to function in addition to the ruling NDP. The left-wing opposition consists of the National Progressive Unionist Party, a grouping of socialists led by Khalid Muhi ad Din, and the Socialist Labor Party. The Wafd resurfaces and wins a court case against its prohibition. One religious party is licensed, the Umma. Not officially represented are the communists, the Muslim Brotherhood, and avowed Nasserites, although all three tendencies are represented in other parties. [5]

A party has to win at least 8 percent of the vote to be represented in the Assembly. The NDP receives more than 70 percent of the vote (391 seats). The Wafd, the only other party to gain any seats, wins fifty-seven. The NPUP receives only 7 percent of the votes and consequently loses them all to the NDP. There are some complaints that the election was rigged. [5]

1987:

May - An agreement is signed with the IMF after intense bargaining and pressure on the IMF by the United States. Because of economic difficulties and mounting debt and deficit, the government since the mid-1980s has had no alternative but to come to terms with the IMF and its creditors. The agreement is considered lenient by IMF standards, although not by the Egyptians. For example, it involves Egypt's agreement to lower its budget deficit to 10 percent of GDP, a ceiling that the government found arbitrary. The

IMF has allowed Egypt to keep the official rate of £E1 = US\$1.43 for pricing oil, cotton exports, and rice but has stressed the need for eventually eliminating the multiple exchange-rate system. [5]

In return, the government is to obtain SDR250 million, or about US\$327 million, much less than the US\$1.5 billion standby credit Egypt had applied for in 1986. More important, the agreement paves the way for an arrangement with Paris Club creditors to alleviate Egypt's debt. [5]

Toward the end of May, the Paris Club approves a ten-year rescheduling, with a five-year grace period. The arrangement also covers arrears outstanding at the end of 1986, in addition to interest and principal repayments due between the beginning of 1987 and June 1988 on all guaranteed debts contracted before the end of October 1987. [5]

November - An Arab summit resolution allows the Arab countries to resume diplomatic relations with Egypt. This action is taken largely as a result of the Iran-Iraq War and Arab alarm over the Iranian offensive on Iraqi territories at the end of 1986 and throughout January and February 1987. On Egypt's side, its economic crisis has worsened, and it needs economic assistance from the Arab oil states. Thus, the summit resolution amounts to an exchange of Egyptian security assistance in the Persian Gulf crisis for Arab aid to Egypt's economy.[5]

1989:

Israel withdraws from Taba on Sinai. Egypt reenters the Arab League. [1]

1990's:

Opposition from Islamic fundamentalists heightens during the 1990s; from 1992 to 1997, more than 1,200 people, mostly Egyptian Christians, are killed in terrorist violence. During the same period, an estimated 26,000 Islamic militants were jailed and dozens were sentenced to death. [7]

1991:

Egypt participates as the third largest party in the allied actions against Iraq, after Iraq's invasion of Kuwait the year before. [1]

In return for Egypt's anti-Iraq stance and its sending of troops in the Persian Gulf War, the United States dismisses \$7 billion in Egyptian debt. Participation in the war strengthens Western ties and enhances Egypt's regional leadership role but is not popular domestically. [7]

1995:

June - Mubarak is the target of an assassination attempt in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, upon his arrival at a summit of the Organisation of African Unity. [8]

1997:

An attack on tourists visiting the Temple of Hatshepsut at Luxor claims some 70 lives. [7]

1999:

February - International grants and loans to Egypt are cut from US\$2.5 billion in 1998 to US\$1.5 billion for 1999. This as a reflection of less need of foreign aid, due to increase in foreign investments. [1]

Mubarak is returned to office for a fourth six-year term. [7]

2000:

December - Egypt, Lebanon and Syria agree on a billion-dollar project for a pipeline to carry Egyptian gas under the Mediterranean to the Lebanese port of Tripoli. [8]

2004:

October - Several Sinai resorts on the Gulf of Aqaba suffer bomb attacks. [7]

November - Funeral of Palestinian leader Yasser Arafat is held in Cairo. [8]

2005:

February - Mubarak calls for a constitutional amendment to permit the direct election of the president from among a multiparty slate, but the restrictions in the amendment on who might run prevent the contest from being open to all challengers. [7]

February-April - Pro-reform and opposition activists mount anti-government demonstrations. [8]

May - After passage by parliament, the amendment is approved in a referendum whose results are denounced as fraudulent by the opposition. At the same time, however, the government is trying Ayman Nour, a leading opposition figure, on charges that his lawyers claim are fabricated in an attempt to derail his presidential candidacy. [7]

July - Scores of people are killed in bomb attacks in the Red Sea resort of Sharm al-Sheikh. [8]

September - In the election, Mubarak is reelected and Nour placed second. Observers say that the election is marred by irregularities but also that they would not have affected the result; the turnout was only 23% of the nation's voters. [7]

December - Parliamentary polls end with clashes between police and supporters of the opposition Muslim Brotherhood. The National Democratic Party and its allies retain their large parliamentary majority. Muslim Brotherhood supporters, elected as independents, win a record 20% of seats. [8]

More than 20 Sudanese migrants die after police break up a protest camp outside the UN offices in Cairo. [8]

Summary

1914: Egypt under British.

1948-1949: State of Israel declared. Arab defence of Palestine fails.

1952: Free Officers seize power.

1956: Egypt seizes control of the Suez Canal. British, French and Israelis try to take it back.

1957: UK & US try to kill Nasser.

1967: Israel attacks Egypt, Jordan and Syria, illegally seizing territory.

1970: Egypt turns to the Soviets. Nasser's dies. Sadat succeeds him.

1973: Egypt tries to retake Sinai.

1976: Egypt starts to align with US.

1978-1979: Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty. Arab League expells Egypt.

1980's: Egypt prey to creditors.

1981: Sadat assassinated.

1982: Israel leaves most of Sinai. Relations with Arab states renewed.

1989: Israel leaves last of Sinai. Egypt reenters the Arab League.

1991: US rewards Egypt for siding against Iraq in Gulf War.

Chad

1982-1990:

US supports the regime of Hissene Habre, including CIA paramilitary support during the coup. His secret police slaughtered some 40,000 and tortured as many as 300,000 others. [1]

Sudan

1898:

Sudan is conquered by an Anglo-Egyptian force under Lord Kitchener. This forestalls any action by the French, Belgians and Italians wanting to establish their influence in the region. [6] [7]

1899:

Sudan is proclaimed a condominium under British-Egyptian administration. While maintaining the appearance of joint administration, the British Empire formulate policies, and supply most of the top administrators. The seat of the administration is at Khartoum. [6] [7]

1899-1918:

Persons claiming to be mahdies ('expected ones') appear in 1903, 1908 and 1912. They are arrested and executed. Measures are undertaken to establish or consolidate Anglo-Egyptian rule over areas in the southern Sudan inhabited by non-Muslim African tribes. [7]

In international agreements the borderlines with French Central Africa (1899), with Italian Eritrea (1898, 1902), with Abyssinia (1902) are established. The border with Uganda, a British protectorate, is delimited in 1913, and then altered in 1914 when Sudan cedes parts of the Lado Enclave to Uganda in return for a stretch of territory of northern Uganda. [7]

The infrastructure and economy are developed. Between 1900 and 1913 the state revenue grew tenfold. The main export product was Egyptian cotton, grown in the Gezira south of Khartoum. [7]

In November 1914 the Ottoman Empire enters the war on the side of the Central Powers; Britain responds by deposing the Egyptian Khedive (formally an Ottoman official). In 1914, the British Government formally recognizes Egyptian independence, under Sultan (King) Fuad. These events have an immediate impact on the Sudan, as, formally, the latter was an Anglo-Egyptian Condominium. However, the British make it clear that they will not give up their hold on the Sudanese administration. [7]

The Sudanese administration long had regarded the autonomy of Darfur an obstacle; in 1916 the Sultan of Darfur declares his loyalty to the Ottoman Emperor and calls for Holy War against the British. His sultanate is quickly occupied and he is deposed (1916). The Sudan experiences a significant rise in her revenue due to rising exports and good prices. [7]

1919-1939:

Political organizations such as the White Flag League are founded which envisions an independent Sudanese nation. In 1924 demonstrations are held, after which White Flag League leader Ali Abd al-Latif is arrested. On Nov. 19th, while on a visit to Cairo, Governor-General Lee Stack is assassinated. Egypt then finds herself confronted with the ultimative demand to withdraw her officials and forces from the Sudan; whilst Egypt complies, a Sudanese battalion mutinies; the mutineers, refusing to surrender, all die fighting. The Sudan formally remains a condominium, but in 1924 de facto becomes a separate unit. Relations with Egypt, especially the question of the Nile water (on which Egypt depends) are regulated in international treaties (1929). In the aftermath of World War I, the Sudanese-Libyan border is redrawn at Sudanese expense, a British attempt to compensate Italy for Dalmatia. [7]

Irrigation and infrastructure projects are undertaken, in order to increase the grain and cotton production. Whilst the area where cotton and grain is extended, in the late 1920's and early 1930's, diseases and locusts severely damage the harvest, in addition to lower prices due to the Great Depression this causes a significant fall in state revenues.

The administration, in order to reduce costs, reduces her British personnel and hires Sudanese to take their place (Sudanization). Also, salaries paid to officials are cut; a cut which affects Sudanese officials (graduates from Gordon Memorial College) more severely than their British colleagues, much to the dismay of the former. They go on strike, returning to work after the administration concedes to apply a lesser cut in their salaries. [7]

From 1934 onwards, the economic situation improves. In 1936 (Italy just had conquered Abyssinia) a treaty with Egypt is signed. Among the Sudanese educated elite, nationalism is the prevailing political view. In 1938 the Graduate's General Congress was founded (that is graduates of Gordon Memorial College); it was to become a prominent organization in the Sudanese movement for independence. [7]

1943:

Out of the Graduates' General Congress grows the Ashiqqa (reformed in 1951 as National Unionist Party), led by Isma'il Azhari, Sudan's first political party. The Ashiqqa was a radical group, and the moderates formed the Ummah party, led by Sayyid Aburrahman al-Mahdi, son of the Mahdi. [8]

1947:

All of Sudan is included in a legislative council, following the entry of the southern provinces. [8]

1951:

In protest to the formation of the legislative council 4 years earlier, Egypt abrogates the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty and proclaims full Egyptian control over Sudan. [8]

1953:

12th February - The new leaders of Egypt sign an agreement with Britain granting self-government for Sudan, and the possibility of independence within 3 years. [8]

November/December - Elections for a representative parliament, where the National Unionist Party wins an overwhelming victory. [8]

1954:

The transitional period toward independence begins with inauguration of the first parliament. [6]

1955:

In the run-up to the granting of Sudan's independence, the civil service and administration are placed increasingly in Northern Sudanese hands - largely excising the Southern Sudanese from the government. The British failure to ensure equity for both the north and the south would have lasting effects. The Arab-led Khartoum government reneges on promises to southerners to create a federal system, which leads to a mutiny by Southern troops in the Equatoria Province. Feeling disenfranchised and cheated, these separatist Southerners begin an initially low-intensity civil war aimed

at establishing an independent South. This war would last seventeen years, from 1955 to 1972. [6]

1956:

1st January - Sudan becomes independent, following a process where the National Unionist Party had left the line of uniting Sudan and Egypt, and begun to emphasize the need to control the southern regions. [8]

The 2 years of liberal democracy of Sudan proved to be difficult. The parties were badly organized, fractures appeared according to old division lines, like religion and tribes, but also new personal interests. Hence the political Sudan proved unable to build the country in the way people had hoped for. [8]

1958:

16th-17th November - General Ibrahim Abbud, commander in chief of the army, takes control over the political structures of Khartoum, dissolves the political parties, prohibits assemblies and suspends newspapers. A Supreme Council of the Armed Forces, made up of 12 officers takes control, and starts implementing needed economical reforms. Among the more important new measures is one to abolish fixed prices on cotton. More problematic is that almost all important positions in administration and police are filled with northern Sudanese, further alienating the southerners. [8]

1962:

Christian missionaries are asked to leave Sudan. [8]

October - Strike in schools and widespread demonstrations in the south, as well as flight of Christians to neighbour countries. [8]

1963:

September - The beginning of an uprising led by the guerilla organization Anya Nya, aiming at better governance over southern Sudan. The government of Khartoum responds, resulting in many clashes. [8]

1964:

December - Demonstrations in Khartoum against the regime's policies towards southern Sudan. As the military forces are engaged in fighting in the south, the regime of Abbud is unable to quell the unrest, Abbud resigns, and a transitional government is established. [8]

1965:

April/May - General elections, resulting a coalition government headed by Muhammad Mahjub of the Ummah party. [8]

Due to many divisions in the parliament, the new regime proves unable to address the many problems and challenges of Sudanese society. [8]

1969:

25th May - A coup is staged by a group of officers headed by Gafar Mohammad an-Nimeiri and the government is dissolved. [8]

By the late 1960s, the war had resulted in the deaths of about 500,000 people. Several hundred thousand more southerners hid in the forests or escaped to refugee camps in neighbouring countries. [6]

By 1969 the rebels had developed foreign contacts to obtain weapons and supplies. Israel, for example, trained Anya Nya recruits and shipped weapons via Ethiopia and Uganda to the rebels. Anya Nya also purchased arms from Congolese rebels and international arms dealers with monies collected in the south and from among southern Sudanese exile communities in the Middle East, Western Europe, and North America. The rebels also captured arms, equipment and supplies from government troops. [6] Militarily, Anya Nya controlled much of the southern countryside while government forces occupied the region's major towns. The guerrillas operated at will from remote camps. However, rebel units were too small and scattered to be highly effective in any single area. Estimates of Anya Nya personnel strength ranged from 5,000 to 10,000. [6] Government operations against the rebels declined after the 1969 coup. However, when negotiations failed to result in a settlement, Khartoum increased troop strength in the south to about 12,000 in 1969, and intensified military activity throughout the region. Although the Soviet Union had concluded a US\$100 million to US\$150 million arms agreement with Sudan in August 1968, which included T-55 tanks, armored personnel carriers, and aircraft, the nation failed to deliver any equipment to Khartoum by May 1969. During this period, Sudan obtained some Soviet-manufactured weapons from Egypt, most of which went to the Sudanese air force. By the end of 1969, however, the Soviet Union had shipped unknown quantities of 85mm antiaircraft guns, sixteen MiG-21s, and five Antonov-24 transport aircraft. Over the next two years, the Soviet Union delivered an impressive array of equipment to Sudan, including T-54, T-55, T56 and T-59 tanks; and BTR-40 and BTR-152 light armored vehicles. [6]

1971:

The southern Sudanese rebels unite under the leadership of Joseph Lagu. [8]

July - An attempt to remove Nimeiri from power fails due to popular and foreign support of his regime. Nimeiri now makes himself president, and makes the Sudanese Socialist Union the only legal party. Moreover he puts in extra efforts in finding a solution to the unrest in the south. [8]

1972:

27th March - Peace is achieved between Nimeiri and Lagu's forces, with the signing of the Addis Ababa Agreement. The agreement secures autonomy for the southern provinces, unites the 3 southern provinces into one, and establishes separate legislature and executive bodies, but joint army and police forces, with members from all over the country. [6] [8]

1970s:

Following the peace agreement, Sudan becomes a country of investment for foreign interests. The food producing potential especially, leads to many Arab-backed projects, like expanding the national infrastructure and the construction of the Jonglei Canal to make the As-Sudd swamps into agricultural land. Unfortunately, few of the projects are properly implemented and never lead to the intended results. There is never any overall control, planning is insufficient and corruption becomes widespread. [8]

1978:

Large findings of oil are made in Bentiu, southern Sudan. The oil becomes an important factor in the strife between North and South. [2]

1980s:

Following the failed politics of investments in the 1970s', 1980's Sudan is a land of deep economic crisis. [8]

1983:

May - The civil war of the south resumes as an army battalion of Bor led by Colonel John Garang breaks with Khartoum and establishes itself in the bush. They are soon joined by many other discontented southerners. [8]

June - Nimeiri divides the southern province into the original 3 provinces, violating the agreement of 1972. [8]

September - In order to gain support from the increasingly important Muslim Brotherhood, Nimeiri introduces the so-called Islamic law system of Sharia for all of the country, even the southern Christian and animist region. [8]

1985:

April - Nimeiri is overthrown in a bloodless coup by General Aburrahman Siwar. [8]

1986:

Elections bring Sadiq al-Mahdi to position of prime minister. [8]

1988:

The Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) and the DUP agree on a peace plan calling for the abolition of military pacts with Egypt and Libya, freezing of Islamic law, an end to the state of emergency, and a cease-fire. A constitutional conference would then be convened. [6]

1989:

The Sadiq al-Mahdi government approves the peace plan and engages in several rounds of talks with the SPLA. A constitutional conference is tentatively planned for September 1989. [6]

March - The government agrees with the UN and donor nations (including the U.S.) on a plan called Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS), under which some 100,000 tons of food are moved into both government and SPLA-held areas of the Sudan and widespread starvation is averted. [6]

30th June - A new coup, this time staged by Lieutenant General Ahmad al-Bashir, removes al-Mahdi from power. The so-called Revolutionary Command Council for National Salvation takes power, but behind this is the Islamic National Front, the political party of the Muslim Brotherhood. [8]

The new government repudiates the DUP/SPLA agreement and states it wishes to negotiate with the SPLA without preconditions. Negotiating sessions in August and December bring little progress. [6]

A period of extreme political suppression starts, where the new Islamist regime imprisons hundreds of political dissidents, bans trade unions and political parties, introduces heavy censorship of the press and removes the judiciary institutions. The politics of the Islamists lead to the hardest suppression Sudan has seen and the virtual destruction of the economy with great poverty for the population. [8]

1990:

March - Phase II of OLS to cover 1990 is approved by both the government and the SPLA. [6]

1991:

Sudan faces a 2-year drought and food shortages across the entire country. The U.S., UN, and other donors attempt to mount a coordinated international relief effort in both north and south Sudan to prevent a catastrophe. However, due to Sudan's human rights abuses and its pro-Iraqi stance during the Gulf War, many donors cut much of their aid to the Sudan. [6]

March - Sharia is reintroduced for all of the country. [8]

August - Internal dissention among the rebels leads opponents of Colonel Garang's leadership of the SPLA to form the so-called Nasir faction of the rebel army. [6]

1992:

September - William Nyuon Bany forms a second rebel faction. [6]

1993:

February - Kerubino Kwanyin Bol forms a third rebel faction. [6]

April - The three dissident rebel factions announce a coalition of their groups called SPLA United at a press conference in Nairobi, Kenya. [6]

October - Bashir dissolves the military government, and introduces steps towards an elected legislature. [8]

1994:

Ali A. Mohamed, a former US Army sergeant, allegedly trains bodyguards for Osama bin Laden in Khartoum according to a 1999 US indictment. [3]

Sudan's government begins funding the (LTA) Lord's Resistance Army in retaliation for Uganda's support of the southern-based rebel Sudan People's Liberation Army. [3]

1995:

The Sudanese government are accused of being part of an attempt on the life of Egyptian prime minister Mubarak. UN decides on sanctions against Sudan. [2]
A coalition of internal and exiled opposition parties in the north and the south create the National Democratic Alliance as an anti-government umbrella group. This development opens a northeastern front to the civil war, making it more than before a center-periphery rather than simply a north-south conflict. The SPLA, DUP, and Umma Parties are the key groups forming the NDA, along with several smaller parties and northern ethnic groups. [6]

1996:

The US embassy in Khartoum is abandoned. [3]

March - Legislative elections are held. [8]

A coup against the government is prevented. [8]

April - A new military cabinet is installed. [8]

The UN imposes diplomatic sanctions on Sudan. [8]

May - Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch accuse Sudan of human rights violations. [3]

July - At least 700,000 people are facing starvation in southern Sudan because of the Khartoum government's refusal to allow large-scale food aid. [3]

1997:

The government signs a series of agreements with rebel factions, led by former Garang Lieutenant Riek Machar, under the banner of "Peace from Within." These include the Khartoum, Nuba Mountains, and Fashoda agreements that end military conflict between the government and significant rebel factions. Many of those leaders then move to Khartoum where they assume marginal roles in the central government, or collaborate with the government in military engagements against the SPLA. [6]

March - The government signs an agreement to build a 900-mile pipeline from the southern oilfields to Port Sudan on the Red Sea. Chinese National Petroleum will control 40% and Petronas of Malaysia would own 30% through its state owned oil company. [3]

4th November - US sanctions against Sudan are tightened due to the Iran-allied government's support for international terrorism and abysmal human-rights record. After lobbying by trade associations the sanctions exclude US imports for gum arabic, a key ingredient for soft drinks, and other goods as an emulsifier. [3]

Production of gum arabic from the acacia tree accounts for nearly half of Sudan's \$20 million annual exports to the US. The derivative is used in soft drinks, cookies, and printing ink. [3]

1998:

April - Sudanese soldiers shoot and beat to death 74 student conscripts who try to flee the Ailafoon military camp. At least 55 others drown when their boat capsizes on the blue Nile while they try to escape. [3]

June - A new constitution is introduced, allowing political parties and greater freedom of expression and association. [8]

July - Famine strikes hard on Sudan, especially the south, with 2.6 million people in great danger. International aid organizations are often hindered in aiding the hungry, as the Khartoum based government tried to starve out the rebel forces. [8]

Sudanese rebels declare a 3 month cease fire to allow food shipments to reach hundreds of thousands hungry people in the southwest.[3]

3rd August - The government declares a unilateral cease-fire. [3]

7th August - Immediately after the bombing of 2 US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania, Sudanese authorities arrest 2 men suspected of being involved in the plot. [3]

20th August - President Clinton orders cruise missile attacks on Sudan and Afghanistan. About 50 missiles are fired at the camp of Osama Bin Laden and some 25 missiles against a suspected chemical plant in Khartoum. The plant in Sudan was suspected of producing the chemical EMPTA, one of the ingredients in VX nerve gas, but also an ingredient in fungicides and anti-microbial agents. The US Operation Infinite Reach began in Afghanistan and Sudan and costs over \$50 million. [3]

Britain provides strong political support for the attack. Tony Blair says 'I strongly support this American action against international terrorists.' and 'our ally, the United States, said at the time of the strike against Al Shifa that they had compelling evidence that the chemical plant was being used for the manufacture of chemical weapons materials'. Later Donald Anderson, former US ambassador to Sudan admits 'the evidence was not conclusive and was not enough to justify an act of war'. [4]

The plant, which had its official opening in June, 1997, was privately owned and partly financed by the Eastern and Southern African Preferential Trade Association. Al-Shifa was extremely important to the Sudan: it had raised the country's self-sufficiency in medicine from about 3% to over 50%. It produced 60-90% of the drugs used to treat the Sudan's seven leading causes of death; malaria and tuberculosis are at the top of the list. [5]

Al-Shifa produced virtually all of the country's veterinary medicine. The Sudan has very large herds of camels, cattle, sheep and goats which are vital to the economy and food supply. The herds are susceptible to treatable infestations of parasites and other diseases. [5]

In Addition, The Plant Was An Important Exporter Of Human And Veterinary Medicines To Other African And Middle Eastern Countries, And Was Contracted Earlier This Year By The United Nations Sanctions Committee (661 Committee) To Ship Medical

Supplies To Iraq, Under The "Oil For Food" Deal. (Interestingly, USA being the head of UN didn't know about it ? - Deliberately) [5]

What made Al-Shifa so vital was that it enabled the Sudan to obtain medicines at about 20% of the purchase cost on the world market. In this respect it is irreplaceable for a country that is one of the world's poorest. The Sudan, The Largest Country In Africa, Has A Gross National Product Of About \$8.3 Billion And A Population Of Approximately 28 Million; The GNP Is Only About \$300 Per Person Annually. Importing Replacement Pharmaceuticals For What Was Lost On August 20 Is Beyond The Government's Means. [5]

Later is it estimated in a Boston Globe report and by Germany's ambassador to Sudan, that the attack led to the deaths of tens of thousands of people through lack of medicines, which the factory formerly produced. [4]

The missile attack destroys the Sugar Sweet and Candy factory of Mustafa S. Ismaeil and kills a guard there. The owner plans to sue the US for damages. [3]

21st August - Sudanese authorities, angered by the US attack of US cruise missiles, release 2 men suspected in the bombing of 2 US embassies on Aug 7. The men are sent to Pakistan. [3]

24th August - It is reported that Salaheldin Idris, a Saudi Arabian banker, plans to sue the US for \$50 million for damages to his Ashifa pharmaceutical factory. [3]

2nd September - It is reported that US officials acknowledge that they were not aware that the Shifa factory produced human and veterinary medicines. The admit that their only knowledge about what the plant produced came from its Web site. [3]

December - The death toll from the 15 year civil war is reported to have reached at least 1.9 million. A 40 nation African conference on refugees opens in Khartoum. [3]

1999:

15th January - The government and rebels agree to a 3-month extension of a cease-fire in a southwestern province. [3]

8th February - An independent scientist hired by the owner of the pharmaceutical plant bombed by the US in August finds no traces of chemical weapons. [3]

28th April - The US announces that it will allow US firms to sell food and medicine to Iran, Sudan and Libya. [3]

3rd May - The US Justice and Treasury departments agree to unfreeze the assets of Saleh Idris, the owner of the Sudanese factory that was bombed by US cruise missiles. [3]

7th May - The rebels postponed peace talks indefinitely. [3]

May - A team of 10,000 Chinese laborers under China Natural Petroleum Corp. complete a 1,000 mile oil pipeline, 2 wells and a refinery after 18 months of work. In exchange Sudan gave CNPC exclusive drilling rights to over 40,000 square miles near the city of Bor. [3]

14th July - The Sudanese government bans aid flights to Western Upper Nile province where 2 factions allied to the government are fighting for control of oil fields. This soon puts 150,000 people to face starvation. [3]

27th July - The US eases sanctions against Iran, Libya and Sudan to allow the sale of food, medicine and medical equipment. [3]

30th August - Southern SPLA rebels reject an Egyptian-Libyan peace plan. The rebels hold that conditions put forward in negotiations were not included in the plan. [3]

31st October - 25 Sudanese fighters are massacred by rival militiamen when they arrive for talks with Paulino Matep at Benitu. [3]

26th November - Sudan signs a peace agreement with the opposition Umma Party in Djibouti to end the 16-year old civil war. [3]

29th November - The rebel Sudan People's Liberation Army reject the Djibouti reconciliation between the government and an exiled opposition group. [3]

12th December - President Bashir dissolves the National Assembly and declares a state of emergency following a power struggle with parliamentary speaker, Hassan al-Turabi. [1]

Sudan start export of oil assisted by China, Canada, Sweden and other countries. [2]

2000:

24th January - Omar el-Bashir reappoints an entirely new government. He fires 10 ministers, disbands 2 ministries and appoints 25 new state governors. [3]

24th February - Some 160 aid workers begin leaving the southern region following a rebel ultimatum to comply with new terms for aid deliveries or face expulsion. At least 11 international aid organizations refused demands for higher taxes and more control. [3]

September - Governor of Khartoum issues decree barring women from working in public places. [1]

President Bashir meets for the first time ever leaders of opposition National Democratic Alliance in the Eritrean capital, Asmara. [1]

18th December - It is reported that some 3.2 million people face serious food and water shortages due to the civil war and drought. [3]

December - Bashir is reelected as President. The main opposition parties boycotted the elections. Bashir extends the state of emergency until 2001. [8]

2001:

An internal struggle in the government, leads to the arrest of an ideological leader who was making peace attempts with the Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA). [2]

March - Hunger and famine in Sudan affects 3 million people. [2]

May - A Danish pilot flying for the International Red Cross is attacked and killed when delivering aid in southern Sudan. All flights in the area are temporarily stopped. [2]

27th May - Secretary of State Colin Powell stops in Uganda and urges the government of Sudan to halt bombing in southern towns and to stop interfering with the delivery of emergency assistance to victims of drought and war. [3]

June - Peace negotiations breaks down in Nairobi, Kenya. [2]

The US House voted (422-2) to forbid foreign oil companies doing business in Sudan from selling securities in the US. [3]

August - The Nile river floods leaving thousands homeless in Sudan. [2]

29th August - In Sudan the UN reports that 3,480 child soldiers have been sent back to their southern homes following 6 months of retraining. 4,000 more children were expected to transition out of the Sudan People's Liberation Army over the next 18 months. [3]

September - the UN lifts on sanctions against Sudan to support ongoing peace negotiations (US abstains). [2] [3]

October - Following the New York terror attacks, USA puts new sanctions on Sudan due to accusations of Sudan's involvement with international terrorism. [2]

During 2001 more than 14,550 slaves are freed after pressure from human rights groups. [2]

The Government of Sudan (GOS) has used aerial bombardments and helicopter gunships to attack the southern Sudanese civilian population for years. In 1999, there were 65 confirmed aerial bombings of civilians in southern Sudan, however, the number of such attacks more than doubled in 2000 to 132 and tripled in 2001 to 195 confirmed bombings. Most of these attacks occurred in the Bahr el Ghazal, Eastern Equatoria, Southern Blue Nile, and Upper Nile regions. [6]

2002:

January - A ceasefire between government forces and the SPLM are finally agreed upon. [2]

20th February - In Sudan a government helicopter gunship attacks civilians waiting for food at a UN site and at least 17 people are killed. The US suspends peace efforts following the attack. [3]

20th April - Sudanese government forces begin a major offensive against 3 southern provinces to oust the rebel Sudan People's Liberation Army. Rebels say hundreds of thousands of people are displaced. [3]

20th July - The government and SPLA signs a protocol to end the civil war. [2]

27th July - President al-Bashir meets for the first time with SPLA leader John Garang. Ugandan president Yoweri Museveni has arranged the meeting. The war in Sudan is also having huge impact on the northern Uganda. [2]

31st July - Sudanese rebels claim that government troops using bombers and helicopter gunships attacked areas of a town in Sudan's oil-producing Western Upper Nile Province. [3]

October - The ceasefire is confirmed again, but remains very uncertain. Peace negotiations still continue during the next years. [2]

12th October - It is reported that 164,000 Eritrean refugees have begun returning home from camps in Sudan. Some 60,000 had already returned since 2001. [3]

20th October - Sudan's government lifts a ban on relief flights to the southern Equatoria region after it signs a cease-fire with southern rebels. [3]

2003:

February - 2 rebel groups representing the African population in Darfur start a rebellion against the government as protest against neglect and suppression. [2]

25th September - Sudan's government and the main rebel group sign an agreement on security arrangements for a six-year political transition in efforts to end their 20-year civil war. [3]

18th October - In western Sudan 9 commercial hauling workers are killed during clashes between warring tribes. Recent fighting in Darfur has created more than 600,000 refugees. [3]

1st November - It is reported that central Sudan is experiencing its worst grasshopper attack in 3 decades. At least 11 people die and more than 16,000 are hospitalized with a respiratory illness doctors link to the annual locust invasion. [3]

December - Progress is made in the peace negotiations. The negotiations are mainly focused on sharing the important oil-resources. [2]

The Sudan Liberation Army (SLA) appears in the Darfur region. It consists largely of members of the Zaghawa tribe. Soon after, the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM) sprang up. In response the government unleashed the Janjaweed, an Arab militia with ranks swollen by ex-criminals. [3]

2004:

January - Government army strikes down on uprising in Darfur region in the Western Sudan. More than 100,000 people seek refuge in Chad. [2]

27th February - Sudanese government forces launch a series of raids on western villages, killing at least 70 civilians and forcing tens of thousands to flee. [3]

19th March - A senior U.N. official says that fighting in western Sudan has intensified in recent weeks, accusing Arab militia of systematically attacking villages and raping women. [3]

March - UN officers report that systematic killings of villagers are taking place in Darfur. UN names Darfur as the worst humanitarian crisis currently, but nothing happens. UN fails to take action as Western countries and media has close to no focus on the problems in Sudan. But even the African leaders refuse to take action on the problem. [2]

21st April - Refugees in Chad report that Sudanese and Arab militias are conducting a "reign of terror" to push blacks out of western Sudan. [3]

25th May - Sudanese officials say the government has reached an agreement with rebels on issues that have stalled talks to end the 21-year-old war, clearing the way for a comprehensive peace deal. The talks in Naivasha, 60 miles west of Nairobi, do not involve insurgents fighting a 15-month rebellion in the Darfur region of western Sudan. [3]

26th May - The U.N. Security Council calls for the immediate deployment of international monitors to Sudan's western Darfur region and put new pressure on the country's government to end the conflict there. [3]

27th May - Relief workers are racing against the clock to keep hundreds of thousands of people from dying in Sudan's western Darfur region, in what has become the biggest humanitarian crisis of "our age." [3]

28th May - The Sudanese government and rebels from Darfur agree that the first international observers of a fragile ceasefire will deploy there next week. Villagers in west Sudan say Sudanese aircraft bombed their village and killed at least 11 people. [3]

14th June - UN humanitarian chief Jan Egeland criticizes the Sudanese government for blocking aid workers, food and equipment from reaching the Darfur region. [3]

19th June - Sudanese President Omar Hassan al-Bashir orders "complete mobilization" to disarm all illegal armed groups in the western region of Darfur, including the Arab militias who have been harassing African villagers. [3]

1st July - The United Nation's World Food Program (WFP) begins airlifting enriched food from the Ethiopian capital to Sudan's western Darfur region, where it estimates 1.2 million people will need food aid every month until October. UN Sec. General Kofi Annan visits the area. [3]

17th July - Sudanese rebels walk out of peace talks, saying government representatives have refused to meet their conditions for a new round of negotiations. [3]

1st August - The Sudanese cabinet condemns the 30-day deadline for action on Darfur set by the U.N. Security Council, but says it will implement a 90-day program agreed earlier with U.N. Secretary General Kofi Annan. [3]

13th August - The first elements of a 300-strong African Union protection force leave Kigali, Rwanda, for Sudan's troubled region of Darfur, Sudan. [3]

19th August - It is reported that the Darfur refugee count in western Sudan has reached 1.2 million. [3]

1st September - A U.N. report calls for a quick increase in the international monitoring force in Sudan, saying the government has not stopped attacks against civilians or disarmed marauding militias. [3]

5th September - London's Sunday Times reports that John Knight, a millionaire British arms dealer, is reportedly fuelling the bloody civil war in Sudan by arranging to supply its government with tanks, rocket launchers and a cruise missile. [3]

15th September - A rebel faction says peace talks with the Sudanese government and rebels from the troubled Darfur region collapsed after three weeks without an accord. [3]

18th September - A divided UN Security Council approves a resolution threatening oil sanctions against Sudan unless the government reins in Arab militias blamed for a killing spree in Darfur and orders an investigation of whether the attacks constitute genocide. [3]

24th September - The UN High Commissioner for Refugees proposes autonomy for the troubled Darfur region of Sudan. The government resists this but says it would be willing to discuss it anew in an effort to end the violence that has killed 50,000 people. [3]

6th October - Sudan's U.N. ambassador challenges the US to send troops to the Darfur region if it really believes a genocide is taking place. [3]

21st October - Negotiations between the Sudanese government and the National Democratic Alliance (NDA), an umbrella organization for opposition groups from around Sudan, open in Cairo under the auspices of Egypt. [3]

26th October - In Nigeria a 2nd day of peace talks on the crisis in Sudan's Darfur region breaks off after rebels call for more time to prepare proposals for a long-term political resolution to the conflict. [3]

28th October - A contingent of 50 Nigerian soldiers arrive in Darfur, Sudan, aboard a US military plane, the first of 3,000 extra African Union troops deployed to monitor a shaky cease-fire. [3]

29th October - Sudanese rebel leaders demand that Islam be kept out of government in the war torn region of Darfur. [3]

30th October - Rwandan troops arrive in Sudan's remote Darfur region to join Nigerian soldiers monitoring a shaky cease-fire in the country's troubled west. [3]

9th November - Sudan's government and rebels agree to sign fresh accords meant to stop hostilities in Darfur. [3]

19th November - Rebel officials and the Sudanese government commit themselves to ending the 21-year civil war in southern Sudan before January, signing an agreement at a special meeting of the UN Security Council in Kenya. [3]

25th November - The UN World Food Program says it has suspended its operations in most of the Sudanese state of North Darfur and relocated its staff to the capital due to renewed clashes between rebels and government forces. [3]

29th November - The Sudanese government declares the representatives of two British humanitarian organizations persona non-grata and gives them 48 hours to leave the country. [3]

2005:

9th January - In Nairobi the government and rebels sign the last parts of the peace treaty for Southern Sudan. All fighting in Africa's longest civil war is expected to end in

January 2005, but the peace agreement still doesn't cover the Darfur region. More than 1.5 million people lost their homes since the conflict in Darfur broke out early 2003. [2]

15th March - United Nations Security Council agrees to send 10,000 peace keeping soldiers to Southern Sudan. Again the decision does not cover the Darfur region. [2]
Council also votes to refer those accused of war crimes in Darfur to International Criminal Court. [1]

June - Government and exiled opposition grouping - National Democratic Alliance (NDA) - sign reconciliation deal allowing NDA into power-sharing administration. [1]
President frees Islamist leader Hassan al-Turabi, who was detained in 2004 over an alleged coup plot. [1]

9th July - Former southern rebel leader John Garang is sworn in as first vice president. A constitution which gives a large degree of autonomy to the south is signed. [1]

1st August - Government announces death of vice president and former rebel leader John Garang in an air crash. He is succeeded by Salva Kiir. Garang's death sparks deadly clashes in the capital between southern Sudanese and northern Arabs. [1]

Summary

1898-1955: British-Egyptian rule.

1955: UK creates North-South divide.

1956: Independence.

1958: Military coup.

1963: Guerilla uprising in South.

1964-1965: New government.

1969: Military coup. North backed by Soviets, South by West et al.

1972: Autonomy for South.

1978: Oil discovered in South.

1983: Civil war again.

1985: Bloodless coup.

1989: Coup ends peace plan.

1991: Drought and aid cut.

1995: UN sanctions. Expanded war.

1998: Famine. US attack.

2001: UN sanctions lifted. USA sanctions increased.

2002: Shaky ceasefire.

2003: More fighting.

2004: Worst humanitarian crisis.

Sierra Leone

1787:

British abolitionists and philanthropists establish a settlement in Freetown for repatriated and rescued slaves. [1]

1808:

Freetown settlement becomes crown colony. [1]

1896:

Britain sets up a protectorate over the Freetown hinterland. [1]

1930:

The first diamond is found in Sierra Leone. [11]

1935:

Diamond production reaches significant levels. The colonial authorities conclude an agreement with De Beers' Sierra Leone Selection Trust (SLST), giving the company exclusive mining and prospecting rights over the entire country for 99 years. [11]

1936:

The SLST is permitted to establish a Diamond Protection Force. This is the beginning of the diamond industry's relationship with private security forces. [11] [12]

1937:

Diamond production reaches one million carats annually. [11]

1954:

Sir Milton Margai, leader of the Sierra Leone People's Party, appointed chief minister. [1]

1955:

The colonial authorities scrap SLST's nation-wide monopoly, confining its operations to Yengema and Tongo Field, an area of about 450 square miles. [11]

1956:

The colonial authorities introduce the Alluvial Mining Scheme, under which both mining and buying licenses are granted to indigenous miners. Many of these licenses come to be held by Lebanese traders who began to settle in Sierra Leone at the turn of the century. [11]

There are an estimated 75,000 illicit miners in Kono District - the heart of the diamond area - leading to smuggling on a vast scale, and causing a general breakdown of law and order. [11]

1960:

Diamond production reaches two million carats annually. [11]

1961:

Sierra Leone becomes independent under the Sierra Leone People's Party (SLPP). [1]
[3]

1967:

Military coup deposes Premier Siaka Stevens' government. [1]

1968:

Siaka Stevens returns to power at the head of a civilian government following another military coup. A populist, he quickly turns diamonds and the presence of SLST into a political issue, tacitly encouraging illicit mining, and becoming involved himself in criminal or near-criminal activities. [1] [11]

1971:

Sierra Leone declared a republic, Stevens becomes executive president. [1]
Stevens creates the National Diamond Mining Company (NDMC) which effectively nationalises SLST. All important decisions are now made by the prime minister and his right hand man, a Lebanese businessman named Jamil Mohammed. [11]

1978:

New constitution proclaims Sierra Leone a one-party state with the All People's Congress as the sole legal party. War breaks out between supporters of the APC and SLPP in the Pujehim district. Rebellion is also linked to smuggling activities on the Liberian border. [1] [3]

1980:

From a high of over two million carats in 1970, legitimate diamond exports have now dropped to 595,000 carats. [11]

1984:

SLST sells its remaining shares to the Precious Metals Mining Company (PMMC), a company controlled by Jamil Mohammed. [11]

1985:

Major-General Joseph Saidu Momoh becomes president following Stevens's retirement. [1]

1987:

Momoh declares state of economic emergency. [1]
From the late 1970s to the early 1990s, aspects of Lebanon's civil war were played out in miniature in Sierra Leone. Various Lebanese militia sought financial assistance from their compatriots in Sierra Leone, and the country's diamonds became an important informal tax base for one faction or the other. This was of great interest to Israel, in part because the leader of the important Amal faction, Nabih Berri, had been born in Sierra Leone and was a boyhood friend of Jamil Mohammed. Following a failed (and probably phoney) 1987 coup attempt in Sierra Leone, Jamil goes into exile, opening the way for a

number of Israeli "investors" with close connections to Russian and US crime families, and with ties to the Antwerp diamond trade. [11]

1988:

Legitimate diamond exports have now dropped to 48,000 carats. [11]

1991:

Start of civil war. Former army corporal Foday Sankoh and his Revolutionary United Front (RUF) begin campaign against President Momoh, capturing towns on border with Liberia. Britain denies Momoh's request for help fighting the rebels. [1] [3]

From the outset of the war, Liberia acts as banker, trainer and mentor to the RUF, although the Liberian connection is hardly new. With a negligible diamond potential of its own, Liberia's dealings in stolen Sierra Leone diamonds have been a major concern to successive Sierra Leone governments since the great diamond rush of the 1950s. [11]

What is different and more sinister after 1991 is the active involvement of official Liberian interests in Sierra Leone's brutal war - for the purpose of pillage rather than politics. By the end of the 1990s, Liberia becomes a major centre for massive diamond-related criminal activity, with connections to guns, drugs and money laundering throughout Africa and considerably further afield. In return for weapons, it provides the RUF with an outlet for diamonds, and does the same for other diamond producing countries, fuelling war and providing a safe haven for organized crime of all sorts. [11]

Joseph Momoh's search for new investors in the early 1990s is carried forward by the NPRC military government. With De Beers out of the picture, and with the disappointing and short-lived Israeli experience behind it, the government now begins to receive overtures from small mining firms, known in the business as "juniors". The three juniors most involved in Sierra Leone during the 1990s are Rex Diamond, AmCan Minerals and DiamondWorks. [11]

September - New constitution providing for a multiparty system adopted. [1]

1992:

President Joseph Momoh ousted in military coup led by Captain Valentine Strasser, apparently frustrated by failure to deal with rebels. They establish the National Provisional Ruling Council (NPRC). An NPRC offensive drives the rebels out of the diamond rich south east and into Liberia, where they receive support from Charles Taylors National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL). Under international pressure, Strasser announces plans for the first multi-party elections since 1967. [1] [3]

1993:

The rebels regroup and intensify their attacks on rural villages, with an increasing number of civilian casualties. Nigerian troops arrive in Freetown. [3]

1994:

January - The NPRC increases its ranks, recruiting boys as young as 12. New soldiers are "sobels", soldiers by day and rebels by night, looting and pillaging towns and villages. [3]

September - Nigeria and Sierra Leone enter into a Mutual Defense Pact. [3]

1995:

January - The RUF overruns the Sierra Rutile and Sieromco Mines, hurting government revenues. [3]

February - RUF fighters advance towards the capital. [3]

Strasser requests further foreign assistance, initially from a group of former British Army Gurkhas. The Channel Islands-based Gurkha Security Group, despite their fearsome reputation, proves ineffective. They get off to a poor start, embroiled in a road ambush in rural Sierra Leone. The RUF kills their Canadian commander, Colonel Robert MacKenzie, and other troops. The 50 Gurkha soldiers departed soon afterwards. [14]

March - Strasser enters into a contract with the South African security firm Executive Outcomes (EO). EO begins training programs for the Sierra Leone Army. Army with EO air support retakes Moyamba. [3]

DiamondWorks and its newly acquired subsidiary, the UK based Branch Energy Ltd., have apparent, but much denied, close ties with both Executive Outcomes and UK mercenary firm Sandline. [11] [14] [15] [19] [21]

May - EO joins the Nigerian and Ghanaian troops in Freetown, driving the RUF back. [3]

June - UK company Branch Energy Limited secures the rights to the diamond mining project known as the Koidu Kimberlite Project. [6] [9]

December - EO moves into rural areas, taking back diamond mining areas. They work with the Kamajoh traditional militia, a local defense force, providing training and support. [3] EO's tactics are bloody and many civilians are hit. [19]

1996:

January - EO retakes the Sierra Rutile mine and fights with the Kamajohs against the RUF in its rural strongholds. [3]

Strasser ousted in military coup led by his defence minister, Brigadier Julius Maada Bio. [1]

February-March - Ahmad Tejan Kabbah of the SLPP elected president. Kabbah agrees to keep on EO and other mercenary groups. [1][3] [14]

November - Peace accord signed with Sankoh's rebels. The RUF receive an amnesty and EO are required to leave following the establishment of a neutral monitoring group. EO are charging \$(US)1.8 million per month for less than 100 personnel with 2 Russian helicopters and logistics. With IMP requirements pressing for government cuts, Kabbah renegotiates EO fees. [1] [3] [14]

DiamondWorks Ltd acquires all the mineral assets of Branch Energy Limited, including the Koidu Kimberlite Project. [6] [9]

1997:

January - EO officially departs Sierra Leone. [3]

After President Ahmed Tejan Kabbah terminates the security contract with Executive Outcomes after pressure from the International Monetary Fund, he is warned by an Executive Outcomes mercenary that in 90 days he will fall. Eighty-nine days later, Kabbah is ousted in a coup by Maj. Johnny Paul Koromah, a Sandhurst graduate who had been trained by Executive Outcomes. [13]

April - Britain and Sierra Leone sign an agreement regarding military training. [3]

May - President Kabbah deposed by army. Major Johnny Paul Koroma, in prison awaiting the outcome of a treason trial, leads the military junta - the Armed Forces Revolutionary Council (AFRC). Koroma suspends the constitution, bans demonstrations and abolishes political parties. There is extensive looting and killing. Kabbah flees to Guinea to mobilise international support. The Economic Community of West African States Ceasefire Monitoring Group (ECOMOG) establishes control at the Hastings and Lungi Airports. The RUF orders its fighters to support the AFRC. AFRC assumes control of the Koidu mines. Approximately 1200 people (including 300 foreigners) are evacuated from Freetown. UN withdraw all staff. [1] [3]

June - A Nigerian attempt to oust the junta fails after Nigerian troops and 800 foreigners are trapped in a hotel, under siege. An ICRC representative negotiates their safe passage. On invitation of the AFRC, the RUF joins the junta as the "People's Party". US marines evacuate 1200 more people, including those from the hotel. The OAU condemns the coup and calls for the restoration of Kabbah. With the AFRC/RUF in control of Freetown, Nigeria brings in hundreds of troops. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) adopts a 3 point plan to persuade the junta to step down: dialogue, an embargo and if necessary force. 2,000 RUF fighters arrive in Freetown to support the AFRC. [3]

July - ECOWAS meets with AFRC/RUF to try to negotiate a return to constitutional rule. Unsuccessful, they impose an embargo on military supplies to the junta, while the Nigerians mount a naval blockade of Freetown. [3]

Tim Spicer of Sandline International provides intelligence services to Rakesh Saxena who has offered to finance a counter coup for Kabbah in return for diamond concessions. [14]

August - Anti coup student demonstrations in Freetown are violently suppressed. ECOWAS adopts sanctions on petroleum products, arms imports and international travel of AFRC/RUF leaders. [3]

October - The UN Security Council imposes sanctions against Sierra Leone, barring the supply of arms and petroleum products. A British company, Sandline, nonetheless supplies "logistical support", including rifles, to Kabbah allies. [1] [3]

ECOMOG and AFRC/RUF agree to restore Kabbah to office within six months. [3]

December - After discussions with the British High Commissioner, Penfold, reps. from Sandline meet with President Kabbah to discuss a military plan for restoring civilian rule. \$1.5 million is paid to Sandline as a first instalment. [3] [14] [16]

DiamondWorks' Sierra Leone manager is seconded, as a "private citizen", to Sandline. [11]

1998:

Sierra Leone loses its only combat helicopter - a serious problem because the Soviet-built gunship has been the government's most effective weapon against the RUF. Zeev Morgenstern, Rex Diamond's Managing Director, and Serge Muller, the company's President, come to the government's aid by making an arrangement to supply engines, parts and ammunition worth US \$3.8 million. The deal goes sour as a result of defective parts supplied from Russia. According to the Washington Post, Morgenstern and Muller have both said, "...the arms deals were unrelated to Rexs mining activities". [11]

January - Kamajoh militiamen, backed by Nigerian forces and with logistical support from Sandline, capture the diamond mining town of Tongo, depriving the AFRC of a large source of income. Fierce fighting erupts in Freetown. [3]

February - Nigerian-led West African intervention force ECOMOG storms Freetown and drives rebels out. Sandline are also involved in the operation, providing intelligence, logistical support and flying an attack helicopter. The British High Commissioner, Peter Penfold, was briefed on Sandline's plans in January having already been involved in discussions about their use in restoring Kabbah to power. [1] [14][16]

March - The British Foreign office is implicated for alleged involvement in Sandline's plan to ship weapons to Sierra Leone in violation of the UN embargo. Bruce Walsham, CEO of DiamondWorks, shares the same office with Sandline, and two of his Board members were involved in the Sandline deal, but he insists that at no time did he know about the activity. [10] [11] [14] [17] British Navy personnel support Sandline, even repairing one of their helicopters for them. [21] [22] The US government apparently also knew about Sandline's activities.[13]

Kabbah is reinstated as president. The UN embargo on petroleum products is terminated, while Kabbah declares a state of national emergency. [3]

March-May - ECOMOG takes the last AFRC/RUF stronghold, the Kono district and by May has all provincial capitals under control. [3]

June - The UN arms embargo is lifted for ECOMOG and the government. [3]

July - ECOMOG captures Kailima and Kailahun, the location of RUF headquarters, but RUF forces evade capture and move north and west. A UNSC resolution establishes UNOMSIL as a 70 member observer force. [3]

August - The RUF threatens a terror campaign directed at civilians should Sankoh remain in government custody. [3]

October - Sankoh is sentenced to death for treason. [3]

Various mercenary groups, principally of British and US origin, work for different mining concerns, government and rebel forces. [20]

December - Foreign personnel are evacuated from Freetown as the security situation deteriorates. [3]

1999:

January - Rebels backing Revolutionary United Front leader Foday Sankoh seize parts of Freetown from ECOMOG. Massive destruction, loss of life and amputations take place in the eastern sector. After weeks of bitter fighting they are driven out, leaving behind 5,000 dead and a devastated city. [1] [3]

May - A ceasefire is greeted with cautious optimism in Freetown amid hopes that eight years of civil war may soon be over. [1] [3]

July - Six weeks of talks in the Togolese capital, Lome, result in a peace agreement, under which the rebels receive posts in government and assurances they will not be prosecuted for war crimes. Thousands of starving civilians and rebels emerge from the bush in search of food. [1] [3]

August - 10 UNOMSIL and 20 ECOMOG are kidnapped by "rebels". [3]

November-December - UN troops arrive to police the peace agreement, but one rebel leader, Sam Bokari, says they are not welcome. Meanwhile, ECOMOG troops are attacked outside Freetown. Kabbah forms his new cabinet including representatives of the RUF and AFRC. [1] [3]

2000:

January - A moratorium on diamond mining is announced, but rebels ignore it. MSF staff are kidnapped by the RUF's Sam Maskita Bockerie. [3]

February - UNHCR reports that rebel fighters continue to loot, rape and mutilate civilians. UNAMSIL is increased from 6000 to 11,000. [3]

May - ECOMOG withdraws from Sierra Leone. RUF rebels hold approximately 500 UN peacekeepers. After the shooting down of a UN helicopter, mass evacuation of foreigners begins. 30,000 protesters march toward Sankoh's residence. UNAMSIL troops fire into the air, disperse the crowd and the RUF opens fire, killing 17 and injuring many more. Sankoh escapes his house and goes into hiding, but is captured, stripped, and paraded through the streets. Bodies suspected to be peacekeepers are found, raising concerns over the continued holding of hostages by the RUF. 467 of the peacekeepers abducted by the RUF are released; 258 still remain surrounded. [1][3] 800 British paratroopers are sent to Freetown to evacuate British citizens and to help secure the airport for UN peacekeepers. [1] [18]

July - The UN Security Council imposes an embargo on the sale of rough diamonds from Sierra Leone. This is followed by measures on the part of the diamond industry to suppress illegal trade in "conflict diamonds". [3]

August - Eleven British soldiers taken hostage by a renegade militia group called the West Side Boys. [1]

The UN Security Council adopts Resolution 1315 creating a special hybrid tribunal (international and Sierra Leonean involvement) to try those responsible for the most serious crimes. It also authorizes the creation of an independent special court to try crimes against humanity and war crimes. [3]

September - In a surprise attack, 150 members of the British Special Forces and parachute regiment free remaining British and Sierra Leonean hostages. [1] [3]

2001:

January - Government postpones presidential and parliamentary elections - set for February and March - because of continuing insecurity. [1]

March - UN troops for the first time begin to deploy peacefully in rebel-held territory. [1]

May - Disarmament of rebels begins, and British-trained Sierra Leone army starts deploying in rebel-held areas. [1]

2002:

January - War declared over. UN mission says disarmament of 45,000 fighters is complete. Government, UN agree to set up war crimes court. [1]

A report on the diamond industry is prepared for the Sierra Leone government at the behest of the UK government. [23]

May - Kabbah wins a landslide victory in elections. His Sierra Leone People's Party secures a majority in parliament. [1]

July - British troops leave Sierra Leone after their two year mission to help end the civil war. [1]

2003:

May - A bilateral agreement is signed with the US government, whereby neither signatory will hand over to the ICC nationals accused of crimes against humanity. [2]

July - Rebel leader Foday Sankoh dies of natural causes while waiting to be tried for war crimes. [1]

August - President Kabbah tells truth and reconciliation commission that he had no say over operations of pro-government militias during war. [1]

2004:

February - Disarmament and rehabilitation of more than 70,000 civil war combatants officially completed. [1]

Local people and the environment suffer from the effects of the Koidu Kimberlite Project run by South African (later Israeli) mining group Koidu Holdings. [7] They also suffer under the activities of the mining concern Sierra Rutile Limited, which still retains a private mercenary group. [8]

March - UN-backed war crimes tribunal opens courthouse to try senior militia leaders from both sides of civil war. [1]

May - First local elections in more than three decades. [1]

June - War crimes trials begin. [1]

September - UN hands control of security in capital over to local forces. [1]

2005:

August - UN Security Council authorises opening of a UN assistance mission in Sierra Leone from 2006, to follow departure of peacekeepers in December. [1]

December - The last UN peacekeeping troops leave Sierra Leone, marking the end of a five year mission to restore order. [1]

2006:

March - Liberian ex-president Charles Taylor is arrested in Nigeria and handed over to the war crimes court in Sierra Leone which indicted him. [1]

August - Date for elections set for July 2007. [1]

December - President Kabbah says 90% of the country's \$1.6bn (£815m) debt has been written off after negotiations with international creditors. [1]

2007:

June - Start of former Liberian president Charles Taylor's war crimes trial in The Hague, where he stands accused of instigating atrocities in Sierra Leone. [1]

Sierra Leone's special war crimes court in Freetown delivers its first verdicts, finding three militia leaders guilty. [1]

August - Presidential and parliamentary polls. Ernest Bai Koroma wins the presidency and his All People's Congress, formerly in opposition, wins a majority in parliament. [1]

[5] A report compiled for president Koroma shows that the country is riddled with corruption.[4]

2008:

January - Former Liberian president Charles Taylor's war crimes trial in The Hague resumes after a six-month delay. [1]

Summary

1787: Freetown established

1808: UK rule.

1935-1956: Diamond mining & smuggling starts.

1961: Independence.

1967-1968: Military coup. Civilian gov. & diamonds.

1978: One party state. War.

1987: Diamonds & foreign war.

1991: Start of civil war funded by diamonds. Multiparty state.

1992-1995: Military coup. Foreign troops. Boy soldiers. SA/UK mercs. & diamond co.
1996: Military coup. Elections. Peace deal. UK diamond co.
1997: UK military & mercs. & diamonds. Coup. UN intervene.
1998: UK gov. & mercs. Junta removed. Fighting continues.
1999-2002: Atrocities. UK rescue. UN troops. War ends. Election.
2003: US immunity deal.
2004-2005: War crimes tribunal. UN troops leave.
2007: Elections.

Ghana

1482:

Portuguese build a fortress and set up a trading settlement. Other Europeans arrive, attracted by gold, ivory and timber. [1] [2]

1600s:

The slave trade becomes the main trade with Europeans. Weapons and manufactured goods are traded for slaves. [2]

1807:

The British ban on slave trade from the Gold Coast comes into effect. The British are dominating the region and begin to change business into exploiting cocoa, gold, timber and palm oil. [2]

1824:

The Ashantene, Osei Bonsu, dies. The British seek a chance to break Ashante control of the Gold Coast trade and the first Anglo-Ashante war breaks out. [2]

1824:

War breaks out again and the Asante are forced to give up their claims to areas on the coast. [2]

1833:

Slavery is officially abolished in all British colonies. All British owned slaves are freed. [2]

1850:

Denmark sells all their remaining forts and possessions on the Gold Coast to Great Britain for 10,000 pound sterling. [2]

1863:

Great Britain dominates the region completely. Only the Ashante kingdom is still resisting British control. The British efforts to control the Gold Coast and especially the

gold trade results in the third British-Ashante war. Ashante history records a victory, but they only manage to hold back the enemy for a few more years. [2]

1874:

British proclaim coastal area a crown colony. Originally the colony is only a 100 km wide strip along the coast, but the British still seek control of the Ashante kingdom and their wealth of gold. The British attack again and burn down the Capital of Kumasi. The king's palace is found empty, but the British steal all values they can find. [1] [2]

1877:

Accra becomes the capital of the colony. [2]

1884-1885:

The Berlin Conference: By Initiative of King Leopold of Belgium, the European countries agree on the new borders for Africa. Thousands of kingdoms all over Africa are suddenly squeezed into approximately 50 European colonies. No consideration at all is made to the people, cultures and languages. Present-day Ghana is under British control, with the exception of the eastern region being part of German Togoland. [2]

1896:

Britain has practically taken control over the Ashante kingdom. As a symbolic act the British send the young Ashante king (Nana Agyeman Prempeh I) into exile. [2]

1900:

Britain again seeks to humiliate the Ashante: The colonial governor Frederick Hodgson demands for the Ashante to hand over their Golden stool, which is the ultimate religious and national symbol for the Ashante. But the Ashante had foreseen this demand and created a fake stool to be given to the British. The provocation leads to uprising among the Ashante. An attack on the British fort in Kumasi is led by the legendary woman Yaa Asantewaa. [2]

1902:

What's left of the Ashante kingdom has surrendered to the pressure from England. The kingdom is annexed into the British colony and the area north of the kingdom becomes British Protectorate. [2]

1918:

After World War I the German areas in the East come under British control. Nationalist movements begins to rise in the region. [2]

1924:

The Asantewaa is permitted to return to the Gold coast from his exile in the Seychelles, but he is left with no political power. [2]

1925:

First legislative council elections take place. [1] [2]

1935:

The Ashante are allowed to have restricted "autonomy" through the Ashanti Confederacy Council. [2]

1946:

The colonial powers are weakened after World War 2. USA and USSR pressure for African independence. Ghana's Legislative Council gets a majority of black Africans, when the British little by little give in to the pressure for African political representation. The rule of the colony is still entirely within the hands of the British though. [2]

1947:

United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC) is one of many new political parties striding for independence. None of the parties are formed inside the colony. Kwame Nkrumah is party secretary for UGCC. [2]

1948:

February - Riots break out in Accra when Police fire at an anti-colonial demonstration. 29 are killed and hundreds are wounded. [2]

Dissatisfied with the efforts of UGCC, Kwame Nkrumah leaves and founds the Convention People's Party (CPP). CCP quickly becomes the major player on the nationalist political scene. [2]

1950:

Nkrumah calls for a national strike and is jailed for his demands for independence. [2]

1951:

Nkrumah is released from jail after CPP wins the first election for the Legislative Assembly. [2]

1952:

Nkrumah becomes the first African prime minister and government leader, but still shares the power with the British governor Sir Charles Arden-Clarke. Nkrumah is re-elected in for the post in 1954 and 1956. [2]

1957:

March - Ghana is the first of the colonies in sub-Saharan Africa to gain independence. Africa and the rest of the world follows the creation of the new state with high anticipations. The situation in Ghana inspires nationalist movements all over the continent. The economy seems to be good and promising as Ghana is rich with gemstones, forests and crops. Ghana is the leading cocoa exporter in the world and produces one tenth of the world's gold. 25% of the population is literate (which is high compared to other colonies at the time) and many are educated. [2]

Nkrumah is increasingly popular, but now faces the huge challenges of uniting a country of people that don't have that much in common. On the contrary some groups still carry hostility towards each other from centuries of wars and the scars of the slave trade.

Political parties which are regional or tribal oriented are prohibited to enforce a feeling of national unity. [2]

1958:

A new law makes it possible to arrest anyone who is suspected of working against the state. The suspects can be imprisoned for up to five years without sentence. Ghana has already started a slow development towards a one-party state. [2] [3]

Industry is on the rise in Ghana and work starts for the huge Akosombo Dam to supply energy. To finance the project Nkrumah is forced to accept hard terms from the American company Valco. Ghana's economy and electricity supply is held back from this agreement even today. [2]

1959:

Ghana begins to work with international pacifist groups in campaigns against nuclear armaments. [7]

1960:

Ghana proclaimed a republic; Nkrumah elected president. [1] [2]

The economy starts to turn bad and Ghana's debt is rising at high speed. Nkrumah has started a great number of expensive and ambitious projects, but most of them give no direct profit in return. The more basic agricultural sector is neglected. The end of the optimistic years results in a change in the political climate. [2]

1961-1966:

President Kwame Nkrumah introduces his Soviet-inspired Seven-Year Plan to establish state-owned factories and public authorities. The projects are financed by foreign loans and taxes, saddling the country with debt and stifling certain sectors of the economy. Cocoa production in Ghana drops dramatically when farmers, whose income has been reduced by the government marketing board's price controls, begin smuggling cocoa to neighbouring countries or switch to other crops. As a result, Ghana ceases to be the world's largest cocoa producer. Burdened with debt, the Ghanaian economy contracts, undermining the Nkrumah government's popularity. The downturn brings widespread unrest which is exacerbated by criticisms that Nkrumah is focusing too much on the promotion of his vision of African-unity. [3]

1962:

Foreign investors and industry are forced by law to re-invest at least 60 percent of their profit within Ghana. [2]

1963:

August - William Edward Burghardt Du Bois dies in Accra. The African-American W.E.B Du Bois was born as in Massachusetts (1868) and became one of the most important contributors to the Pan-African movement, which again influenced Kwame Nkrumah and the history of Ghana. Du Bois was invited by Nkrumah to settle in Ghana after independence. [2]

1964:

Nkrumah suspends the democracy by suspending the constitution. Ghana officially becomes a one-party state and Nkrumah gains the power of a dictator. Criticised by the West, Nkrumah now turns to the Soviet Union and other communist countries. [2] The economy is out of control and the population is getting poorer. Nkrumah is no longer a popular leader as he hits hard on demonstrations and arrests anyone in opposition. [2]

1965:

Ghanaian President Kwame Nkrumah rejects IMF and World Bank recommendations to implement an economic development strategy based on non-inflationary borrowing and reduced government spending. Ghana's refusal to implement these reforms makes it ineligible to receive loans from the two institutions. Nkrumah continues with a policy aimed at diversifying the Ghanaian economy through import substituting industrialization (ISI). [3]

By this time "the Accra CIA station has two score active operators, distributing largess among President Nkrumah's secret adversaries." [10]

March - In Washington, D.C., US ambassador to Ghana William P. Mahoney meets with CIA Director John A. McCone and the deputy chief of the CIA's Africa division [name unknown] to discuss a "Coup d'etat Plot" in Ghana. According to a CIA document summarizing the meeting, Mahoney says that he is uncertain whether the coup, being planned by Acting Police Commissioner Harley and Generals "Otu" and "Ankrah", will ever come to pass. Notwithstanding, he adds that he is confident that President Kwame Nkrumah will not make it another year, given his waning popularity and Ghana's deteriorating economy. "In the interests of further weakening Nkrumah", Mahoney recommends that the US deny Nkrumah's forthcoming request for financial assistance, according to the CIA memo. He adds that by refusing the request it would make a "desirable impression on other countries in Africa", the memo also says. In the event of a coup, Mahoney says a military junta would likely come to power. [3] [5] [10]

In a public speech, President Kwame Nkrumah lashes out against US support for Moise Tshombe in the Congo and blames the US government and financiers for many of the problems in Africa. [3]

In a telegraph to the US Department of State, US ambassador to Ghana William P. Mahoney recounts a meeting he had that morning with President Kwame Nkrumah. He says he told the president that the US government resented the anti-US statements he had made in his March 22 speech, in which he had laid blame on the US for many of Africa's problems. "I said I would never have believed that [a] man of his sophistication and refinement would use language like that against my country, and it shock[ed] [me] to hear him do so." Mahoney says that Nkrumah conceded that the rhetoric in his speech was "loaded and slanted throughout", but insisted that "he had special purpose in mind". After Mahoney further criticized Nkrumah's speech, defending US policy in

Africa, he saw that the president was crying. "I looked up and I saw he was crying. With difficulty he said I could not understand [the] ordeal he had been through during [the] last month. [He [r]ecalled that there had been seven attempts on his lifeâ€]. In comments listed at the end of his telegraph, Mahoney says that Nkrumah seems "convinced as ever [that the] US is out to get him" and "still suspects US involvement" in the recent assassination attempts. He explains that Nkrumah appears to be a "badly frightened man" whose "emotional resources seem [to] be running out" and predicts that there will be "more hysterical outbursts" from Nkrumah against the US. [3] [10]

Robert W. Komer, a National Security Council staffer, says in a memorandum to McGeorge Bundy, President Johnson's Special Assistant for National Security Affairs, that plans to overthrow the Ghanaian government are looking "good". "[W]e may have a pro-Western coup in Ghana soon", he states at the beginning of his memo. "Certain key military and police figures have been planning one for some time, and Ghana's deteriorating economic condition may provide the spark. The plotters are keeping us briefed, and State thinks we're more on the inside than the British. While we're not directly involved (I'm told), we and other Western countries (including France) have been helping to set up the situation by ignoring Nkrumah's pleas for economic aid. The new OCAM (Francophone) group's refusal to attend any OAU meeting in Accra (because of Nkrumah's plotting) will further isolate him. All in all, looks good." [3] [10]

October - Ghanaian President Kwame Nkrumah publishes his famous work, *Neo-Colonialism: The Last Stage of Imperialism*, in which he predicts, quite accurately, that Africa will suffer persistent meddling by the intelligence agencies of foreign governments, particularly the CIA and KGB. He accuses American intelligence of being behind several of the crises being experienced by the Third World. His book introduces the term "neo-colonialism", whereby a state is theoretically independent, but in reality, has its economic system and political policies directed from outside. He again calls on Africans to be united against imperialism and global capitalism. The US government quickly informs Nkrumah that it opposes the ideas presented in the book and cancels \$35 million in aid to Ghana. [3]

1966:

February - The Ghanaian army, led by British-trained officers, stages a coup, overthrowing the pan-Africanist government of Kwame Nkrumah, who is in Burma at the start of a grand tour aimed at resolving the conflict in Vietnam. A weak economy exacerbated by the deliberate actions of Western governments to destabilize the country, had severely damaged the president's popularity among the masses. Additionally, the military was upset with Nkrumah's cuts to the defense budget and the declining real wage of army officers. The coup itself is supported by the CIA, which has maintained intimate contact with the plotters for at least a year. The CIA's involvement in the plot is so close that it manages to recover some classified Soviet military

equipment as the coup is happening. Nkrumah flees to asylum to his personal friend President Sékou Touré in Guinea. In the following days and weeks all Nkrumah statues in Accra are taken down by the crowds. [2] [3] [5] [10]

International diamond merchant and middleman for De Beers diamond cartel, Maurice Tempelsman was also involved in the coup. [4]

The new military government calls itself the National Liberation Council (NLC). It declares that the aim of the coup is to end corruption and change the constitution in order to get Ghana back on a democratic line. The members of the council have a conservative approach and keep strict control of all left-wing politicians and ideologues. All connections to the Soviet Union are broken and technicians from the USSR and China are expelled. The west sees this as a new direction in Ghanaian politics and economics. [1] [2]

March - Commenting on the recent coup in Ghana, Robert W. Komer, a special assistant to the US president, says in a memo to President Johnson that the overthrow of the Nkrumah government was "another example of a fortuitous windfall". He gloats over the win noting that "Nkrumah was doing more to undermine our interests than any other black African" and that the "new military regime is almost pathetically pro-Western". He then goes on to emphasize that the US should "follow through skillfully and consolidate such successes". He explains: "A few thousand tons of surplus wheat or rice, given now when the new regimes are quite uncertain as to their future relations with us, could have a psychological significance out of all proportion to the cost of the gesture. I am not arguing for lavish gifts to these regimes, indeed, giving them a little only whets their appetites, and enables us to use the prospect of more as leverage." [3] [10]

Three weeks after the coup Washington approves substantial emergency food assistance in response to an urgent request from Ghana. A food request from Nkrumah four months earlier had been turned down. [10]

May - The IMF and World Bank begin working with the military junta in Ghana, providing the country with standby credit. Western countries agree to postpone Ghana's debt obligations until December when an IMF sponsored meeting is scheduled to convene. [3]

December - The military government of Ghana meets with the Paris Club of Western governments and forges a debt rescheduling agreement, which defers Ghana's debt obligations between June 1966 and December 1968 to the period 1971-1979. [3]

1969:

September - Multi-party elections are held in Ghana and a new civilian government is formed by Dr. Kofi Busia and the Progress Party.[1] [2]

1971:

High prices on the cocoa market gives Busia a good start, but in 1971 the prices drop again and the economic situation in Ghana worsens. The government devaluates the Cedi leading to increased prices and general unrest in the population. [2]

1972:

Kwame Nkrumah dies in Conakry, Guinea. In spite of his democratic failure he is still respected as the founder of Ghana. His body is later moved and buried in Accra. [2]

January - Forces within the military once again carry out a coup. The National Redemption Council puts in Colonel Ignatius Acheampong as head of the state. But Acheampong lacks experience and economic-political visions. The result is a growth of corruption in all levels of government and society. [2]

1974:

The population shows its dissatisfaction with the government through strikes - mostly arranged by students. The unions get increasing support. [2]

1975:

Economy is close to collapse and it is no longer possible to come to agreement within the NRC government. Acheampong decides to get rid of the government and forms the Supreme Military Council (SMC) with only seven hand picked members. The opposition is far from happy with the situation, but the only answer from SMC is harassment and jailing of critics without sentence. [2]

1978:

July - Acheampong is forced to resign as general William Akuffo takes control of the "Supreme Military Council II". He promises to reinstate a civilian government. Political parties are once again allowed in Ghana and a date for election is set. No other major changes happen in the following year and the discontent continues. [1] [2]

1979:

May - The young Flight Lieutenant Jerry John Rawlings heads an uprising within the army. The coup attempt is unsuccessful as Rawlings is arrested. Soon after he is freed again by soldiers supporting him. [2]

June - A few days before the planned election a new military coup is carried out by Jerry Rawlings. The Armed Forces Revolutionary Council (AFRC) takes power, but still has the intention to make place for a democratic election later the same month. The aim of the coup is apparently to ensure free elections and put an end to the corruption and economic chaos. But it is also to prevent the SMC generals from retiring to a life in luxury after having run down the country. Politically and economically Rawlings is inspired by socialist ideas. [2]

Dr. Hilla Limann and his People's National Party wins the election, but it is a close call: PNP gets 71 of the 140 seats in parliament. [2]

Rawlings supports the AFRC in its determination to end corruption and restore order and justice before returning Ghana to democracy. The former leaders from the SMC

government are tried and executed together with the three former chief of states: Acheampong, Akuffo and Afrifa. Several hundred government officials and businessmen are sent to prison. [2]

September - AFRC turns over power to Hilla Limann. Rawlings and his soldiers returns to the army. [2]

The new government tries, but not hard enough. It is not able to solve the economic stagnation of Ghana. Necessary, but unpopular economic reforms are given up in fear of unrest and a new coup. [2]

1980:

Jerry Rawlings is not forgotten. He gains more and more popularity as he continues to demand an end to corruption. But Limann seems to have forgot the lessons learned from his predecessors. The corruption returns to society and internal conflicts finally break up the ruling party. [2]

1981:

December - Jerry Rawlings once again takes power through a military coup. The Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) is established with Rawlings as chairman. The parliament is dissolved and all political parties forbidden, but Rawlings insists that the (long-term) goal is restoring democracy in Ghana. [2]

In all parts of the country local committees are established to build up democracy at all levels, inspire public participation and fight corruption. While the committee work gives many Ghanaians a better feeling of responsibility and influence, all political opposition is strictly forbidden. [2]

1982-1983:

Several coup attempts are made by dissatisfied parts of the army (mainly from the northern regions). None of the coups are successful. Opposition groups operating from Togo almost succeed in a takeover. Relations between neighbouring countries Togo and Ghana worsen. [2]

Rawlings adopts conservative economic policies, abolishing subsidies and price controls, privatising many state enterprises and devaluing the currency. [1]

1984:

The Ghanaian economy finally shows signs of improvement, and even though Rawlings has a tough grip on Ghana, he maintains his popularity (first of all among workers and rural population). Rawlings has strong connections to Libya, Cuba and Eastern Europe, but his efforts to improve the economy are bring new loans by the IMF. For the following years Ghana continues to have the highest growth rate in Africa. Rawlings speaks strongly against economic globalisation allowing market prices on Cocoa to determine the future of a developing country like Ghana. [2]

1985:

The Preventive Custody Law allows the government to imprison opponents for the sake of "state security". The prisons are crowded with political prisoners. [2]

Major Courage Qarshigah and other officers makes an attempt on Rawlings life. They are sentenced and one is found hanged in his prison cell. Amnesty International and the Western donor countries begin to criticise a lack of human rights in Ghana. [2]

1990:

Rawlings forms the National Commission for Democracy to work out plans for the political future of Ghana. [2]

1992:

A new democratic constitution is passed. Political prisoners are freed and parties are allowed. Free press and human rights organisations emerge in Ghana. [1] [2]

November - Multi-party elections in Ghana. Surprisingly Rawlings wins the presidential election with nearly 60% of the votes. The opposition accuses Rawlings of fraud and boycotts the election for parliament. As a result of the boycott Rawlings' National Democratic Congress and its smaller coalition partners are getting all seats. Independent observers approve the elections as being free and fair. Rawlings now has a democratic base to continue the work he started during the long period with a military junta. [2]

1990's:

The political climate between government and opposition slowly improves. Economic growth continues in Ghana, which is still praised by the IMF. [2]

1994:

A land conflict between the Ethnic groups of Konkombas and Nunumbas results in the "Guinea Fowl War" in north-eastern Ghana. Ancient conflicts are ignited after a discussion on a market place. Up to 2000 are killed and 150,000 are displaced. A peace treaty is signed, but violence breaks out again several times in the following years. [1] [2]

1995:

May - The parliament approves a VAT at 17%, resulting in several demonstrations and some riots, specially in the capital of Accra. The government cancels the unpopular VAT - probably concerned about the forthcoming elections. [2]

Government imposes curfew in Northern Region as renewed ethnic violence results in a further 100 deaths. [1]

1996:

Rawlings is re-elected with 57% of the votes. NDC remains the biggest party in parliament, but John Kufuor's New Patriotic Party also has strong representation. The opposition and all observers approve the elections. The West continues to be content and optimistic about the situation in Ghana, even though economic progress is now at a much smaller rate. [2]

Late 1990's:

Popularity of NDC fades as the opposition puts forward accusations of corruption within the government. Rawlings remains popular, but is also personally accused of corruption. [2]

1997:

The Ghanaian Kofi Annan is appointed Secretary General of the United Nations, bringing great pride to the country. [2]

1998:

The level of water is falling in the Akosombo reservoirs resulting in power shortage for Ghana. With normal water levels the dam can supply all of Ghana and even sell electricity to Togo and Benin as well, except for the fact that 40% of the electricity is owned by a very hard contract with the American Valco company, which consumes huge amounts of power for its Aluminium production. Construction of a nuclear power plant is considered by the Ghanaian government, but is found to be far too expensive. The energy crisis is partly solved by increasing the supply of electricity from Côte d'Ivoire. [2]

1999:

January - Members of NDC break out and create the Reform Movement as a large opposition party. [2]

August - Police hit hard on student demonstrations. The demonstrations end when the Universities are forced to close by the government. [2]

2000:

December - Rawlings' presidency ends as the constitution only allows two terms in office. Vice president John Atta Mills is new presidential candidate, but it is John Kufour from NPP who wins elections and becomes the new president. [2]

2001:

February - Petrol prices rise by 60% following the government's decision to remove fuel subsidies. [1]

April - Ghana accepts debt relief under a scheme designed by the World Bank and the IMF. [1] [2]

May - National day of mourning after football stadium stampede leaves 126 dead. Inquiry blames police for overreacting to crowd trouble.[1] [2]

June - Government scraps public holiday celebrating Rawling's military coup in an effort to wipe out the legacy of his rule. [1]

Floods hit Accra, causing 10 deaths and forcing 100,000 to flee their homes. [1] [2]

November - The British government is found to be withholding aid for the improvement of the water system in the city of Kumasi until all contracts for the lease of the country's water supplies are agreed. "Effectively," says Christian Aid, "the UK is withholding funds

from the final phase of a project that will bring water to more people as a lever to force through a public-private partnership that may not." [8] [9]

2002:

April - State of emergency is declared in the north after a tribal chief and more than 30 others are killed in clan violence. State of emergency is lifted in August 2004. [1]

May - President Kufuor inaugurates reconciliation commission to look into human rights violations during military rule. [1] [2]

2003:

October - Government approves merger of two gold-mining firms, creating new gold-mining giant. [1]

2004:

February - Former President Jerry Rawlings testifies at commission investigating human rights offences during the early years of his rule.[1]

October - Group of current and former military personnel detained on suspicion of planning to destabilise government ahead of elections.[1]

December - Presidential poll: Incumbent John Kufuor wins a second term. [1]

2005:

April-May - Thousands of Togolese refugees arrive, fleeing political violence in their home country. [1]

2006:

April - A boat capsizes on Lake Volta reservoir; more than 100 passengers are feared drowned. [1]

June - Visiting Chinese Premier Wen Jiabao promises to lend Ghana about \$66m to fund development projects. He is on an African tour aimed at opening new export markets for China's booming economy and at securing energy and mineral supplies. [1]

2007:

March - Ghana celebrates 50 years of independence from Britain. [1]

June - Major off-shore oil discovery announced. President Kufuor says oil will turn Ghana into an "African tiger". [1]

September - The worst floods for more than 30 years cause widespread devastation, destroying much of the annual harvest. [1]

November - Mining firms are accused of polluting Ghana and other African countries as well as using heavy handed tactics with locals.[6]

December - President Kufuor says off-shore oil reserves total 3 billion barrels. [1]

2008:

December - John Atta Mills, candidate of the opposition National Democratic Congress, is elected president, narrowly winning a run-off vote against Nana Akufo-Addo, of incumbent President John Kufuor's New Patriotic Party. [1] [2]

Summary

1600s-1833: Slave trade.
1800s: British domination.
1874: British colony.
1948: Anti colonial riots.
1952: Nkrumah prime minister.
1957: Independence.
1960: Economic troubles.
1962: Foreign profits restricted.
1964-1965: One party state. CIA backs opposition.
1966: CIA backed coup.
1969: Multi-party elections.
1972: Military coup.
1979: Rawlings coup. Elections.
1981: Second Rawlings coup.
1992: Rawlings elected.
1994: "Guinea Fowl War".
1996: Rawlings re-elected.
1998: Power shortages.
2001: UK interferes in water.
2007: Oil discovered.

Ethiopia

1977-1978:

Amid ongoing juggling between superpowers the recently acquired US client in Somalia launches an attack against the Soviet client in Ethiopia. Soviet and Cuban military aid to Ethiopia amidst the foreign attack apparently demonstrated another rising wave of "Soviet aggression", though Soviet support for brutal regimes in the region by then was old hat. [1]

Somalia

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1992-1994:

Africa's worst drought of the century occurs in 1992, and, coupled with the devastation of civil war, Somalia is plunged into a severe famine that kills 300,000. U.S. troops are sent in to protect the delivery of food in Dec. 1992, and in May 1993 the UN takes control of the relief efforts from the U.S. The warlord Mohamed Farah Aidid ambushes UN troops and drags American bodies through the streets, causing an about-face in U.S. willingness to involve itself in the fate of this lawless country. The last of the U.S. troops departs in late March, leaving 19,000 UN troops behind. [1] [2]

Summary

1977-1978: US client Somalia launches an attack against the Soviet client Ethiopia.

1992-1994: US leaves after American bodies are dragged through the streets.

Democratic Republic of Congo

1885:

Belgium's King Leopold II gains title to the Congo after Henry Stanley signs treaties with several African rulers purportedly giving the king sovereignty in their areas. In the subsequent years Leopold makes a huge fortune from the the rubber and ivory trades. European companies also begin exploiting the vast mineral wealth of the area. [6]

1908:

Belgian state annexes Congo amid protests over killings and atrocities carried out on a mass scale by Belgian King Leopold II's agents. Millions of Congolese are said to have been killed or worked to death during Leopold's control of the territory. [1]

Under Belgian rule the worst excesses (such as forced labor) of the Free State were gradually diminished, but the Congo was still regarded almost exclusively as a field for European investment, and little was done to give Africans a significant role in its government or economy. [6]

1955:

When demands for independence are mounting throughout Africa, Belgian Professor Antoin van Bilsen publishes a "30-Year Plan" for granting the Congo increased self-government. [1] [6]

1959:

Belgium begins to lose control over events in the Congo following serious nationalist riots in Leopoldville (now Kinshasa). [1]

1960:

June - Congo becomes independent with Patrice Lumumbai, the leader of the Mouvement National Congolais, as prime minister and Joseph Kasavubu, leader of the ABAKO party, as president. [1] [6]

On becoming Prime Minister Lumumba speaks out against past injustices inflicted by the wealthy whites and speaks of future economic and political liberation. [7]

Fearful of losing the place they hold, Belgian interests stir up ethnic and personal rivalries. [6] [7]

July - The Congolese army mutinies; Moise Tshombe declares Katanga independent; Belgian troops sent in ostensibly to protect Belgian citizens and mining interests. Amid complaints at the violence of the Belgian troops, the UN Security Council votes to send in troops to help establish order, but the troops are not allowed to intervene in internal affairs. [1] [6] [7]

Most of the Western forces are concentrated in the mineral rich Katanga region. The USA and UN refuse to help Lumumba quell the uprising. He receives some support from the USSR, but cannot regain control of the country. [7]

September - At the behest of President Eisenhower's administration, which has strong connections with the mineral exploitation, Kasavubu dismisses Lumumba as prime minister. [1] [7]

Still fearful of Lumumba's powerful oratory Eisenhower orders Lumumba's assassination. [7]

December - Lumumba arrested by the army under Jospeh Mobutu. [1] [7]

1961:

January - Lumumba is handed over to Tshombe, leader in the Katanga region. On the same day Tshombe has him killed and the CIA dispose of the body. [1] [3] [7]

Death of UN Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld in mysterious plane crash while trying to secure peace in Congo. Recent evidence has emerged of possible MI5 and CIA involvement. [2] [4] [5]

August - UN troops begin disarming Katangese soldiers. [1]

The UN and USA decide to back Cyrille Adoula as the prime minister of a united Congo. Congo's parliament is bribed to back him as well.[7]

December - Fighting between UN and Katangese forces breaks out. [6]

1962:

January - UN forces, with US support drive out Adoula's opponent, Antoine Gizenga, and his followers. [7]

Tshombe strives to maintain independence. [6]

December - Fighting between UN and Katangese forces breaks out again. [6]

1963:

January - Tshombe is forced to give in and agrees to end Katanga's secession. [1] [6]

1964:

To aid the government against widespread rebellions, the USA provides arms, aircraft and 100 to 200 military personnel. The CIA also conducts a paramilitary campaign against the insurgents in the eastern part of the country. [7]

June - The last UN troops are withdrawn from the country. [6]

July - In desperation, President Kasavubu appoints Tshombe prime minister, but this move results in large-scale rebellions. With the help of U.S. arms, Belgian troops, and white mercenaries, the central government gradually regains control of the country. Many CIA operatives are involved and are ordered to carry out indiscriminate attacks upon civilians. [6] [7]

November - Between 2000 and 3000 white foreign workers are trapped in rebel controlled Stanleyville. A rebel leader offers to release them for certain concessions, principally the cessation of American bombing, but negotiations fail. The USA and Belgium launch a rescue mission. Over 500 Belgian paratroopers are dropped from American planes. Chaos follows. Over 2000 hostages are rescued. Over 100 are killed by fleeing rebels and several hundred more are dragged into the bush. The mission was coordinated with Tshombe's forces who took over the city, looting and killing as they did so. [7]

Tshombe announces a development plan in collaboration with the USA, Britain and West Germany. [7]

1965:

Kasavubu appoints Evariste Kimba prime minister. [6]

November - Mobutu again intervenes, dismissing Kasavubu and proclaiming himself president; Tshombe flees to Spain. [6]

1966:

An attempted coup by Kimba is defeated. [6]

Mobutu abolishes the office of prime minister. Leopoldville, Stanleyville, and Elisabethville were given African names (Kinshasa, Kisangani, and Lubumbashi, respectively), thus in effect beginning the campaign for "African authenticity" that became a major policy of Mobutu in the early 1970s. [6]

1971:

Joseph Mobutu renames the country Zaire and himself Mobutu Sese Seko; also Katanga becomes Shaba and the river Congo becomes the river Zaire. [1]

June - Mobutu has the entire student body of Lovanium University forcibly enlisted in the army, after some student demonstrations. 10 students are imprisoned for life. [7]

1973:

November - Mobutu nationalises many foreign-owned firms and forces European investors out of the country. [1] [8]

1974:

August - Revised version of 1967 constitution promulgated, making Mobutu's party, the Popular Movement of the Revolution (MPR), synonymous with the state. [8]

1975:

Mobutu involved in civil war in Angola on the side of the CIA backed forces. [7]

June - Mobutu accuses the USA of plotting a coup against him in coalition with Zairian citizens "thirsty for money". Several Zairian military officials are arrested, reportedly including most of the CIA's indigenous agents. The US ambassador, Deane R. Hinton, is later ordered to leave and Zaire's ambassador in Washington is recalled. [7]

October - Mobutu requests the CIA's help in annexing Cabinda, a province of Angola separated from the rest of Angola by a thin strip of Zairian territory. The CIA fly in a 1000 man arms package for the Zairian troops. CIA officials also help coordinate the invasion, but it proves unsuccessful. [7]

November - Policy of retrocession announced, returning much expropriated property to foreign owners. [8]

1976:

April - the CIA give Mobutu nearly \$1.4 million to give distribute to US backed Angolan troops, thousands of whom are refugees in Zaire. He pockets the money. The CIA had thought this might happen, but reasoned it would act as a bribe for him not to retaliate against the CIA. [7]

1977:

Mobutu invites foreign investors back, without much success. [1]

April - French, Belgian and Moroccan troops help repulse attack on Shaba (Katanga) by Angolan-based Zairian rebels. The USA provide \$15 million worth of military supplies and the CIA supports efforts to recruit US and British mercenaries. Belgium and France provided arms, ammunition and 14 Mirage bombers. China also provides military equipment. [1] [7]

May - The rebels are finally forced to retreat. [7]

October - Legislative elections held. [8]

December - Mobutu reelected president, running unopposed. [8]

1978:

February - Constitution revised; military establishment purged following discovery of coup plot. [8]

May - The same insurgent group that attacked the previous year launches another invasion of Shaba from Zambia and is again defeated only with help of French and Belgians troops and US military aid. The US fly in the Belgian and French troops, followed later by Moroccan, Senegalese and Gabonese troops. [7] [8]
In an attempt to justify their involvement the US administration claims Cuba and the Soviet Union were involved in the rebel attack. This proves to be false and it turns out that Castro had warned the US government of the invasion, but they had ignored him. [7]

June - Pan-African peacekeeping force installed in Shaba and stays for over a year. [8]

1980:

It is estimated that officials were skimming off at least \$240 million a year from the nationalized mining resource. [9]

1982:

September - Legislative elections held; multiple candidates allowed for first time; more than three-quarters of incumbents voted out; thirteen parliamentarians attempt to form second party and are arrested. [8]

1984:

July - Mobutu reelected without opposition. [8]

November - Rebel forces occupy Moba in Shaba Region for two days before town recaptured by Zairian forces. [8]

1985:

June - Zaire celebrates twenty-five years of independence; on eve of celebration, guerrillas briefly occupy Moba again. [8]

1986:

December - Ronald Reagan describes Mobutu as "a consistent voice of good sense and good will". [9]

1988:

The World Bank estimates that up to \$400 million, a quarter of Zaire's export revenues, most of it earned from Gecamines, the nationalized mining concern, inexplicably vanished from the country's foreign-exchange accounts in this year.

[9]

1989:

February - Student disturbances break out in Kinshasa and Lubumbashi and result in violent clashes with armed police. [8]

Zaire defaults on loans from Belgium, resulting in a cancellation of development programmes and increased deterioration of the economy.[1]

1990:

April - Mobutu agrees to end the ban on multiparty politics and appoints a transitional government, but retains substantial powers. [1]

May - Protesting students at University of Lubumbashi massacred by government forces; as a result, Belgium, European Community, Canada, and United States ultimately cut off all but humanitarian aid to Zaire. [8]

December - Legislation permitting political parties to register finally passed. [8]

1991:

April-May - Security forces intervene violently against demonstrators. [8]

August - National conference on political reform convened with ostensible mandate to draft new constitution as prelude to new elections; conference suspended, August 15. [8]

September - Unpaid paratroopers mutiny in Kinshasa and go on rampage, looting and violence spread; France and Belgium send troops to restore order and evacuate foreign nationals. [8]

October - Opposition leader Etienne Tshisekedi named prime minister in early October but fired by Mobutu a week later, spurring violent demonstrations; France joins other Western nations in cutting off economic aid to Zaire; Mobutu appoints Mungul-Diaka to succeed Tshisekedi. [8]

The problem, like almost all problems in Zaire, boiled down to money. Tshisekedi, with the backing of Western governments, sought control over Zaire's Central Bank. This Mobutu could not abide. [9]

November - Mobutu names another opposition leader, Nguza Karl-i-Bond, prime minister. [8]

Gabriel Kyungu wa Kumwanza is appointed governor of Shaba. He immediately launches a campaign to drive the Kasai people from Shaba. The Kasai had, in previous generations, been brought into Shaba from the neighbouring province of Kasai to work in the mines. Now they are violently driven out. [9]

December - National conference reconvenes. [8]

1992:

National conference activities periodically suspended by Mobutu; economy continues to deteriorate; Western nations call for Mobutu to step down, but he clings to power. [8]

February - Peaceful demonstrations by Christian groups violently broken up by security forces; up to forty-five killed and 100 injured. [8]

April - National conference meets, declares itself to have sovereign powers not only to draw up a new constitution but also to legislate a multiparty system; Transitional Act passed establishing new, transitional government; these actions constitute a direct challenge to Mobutu, who does not accept conference's authority. [8]

August - Newly named Sovereign National Conference elects Tshisekedi (of Kasai origin) prime minister, precipitating violent confrontations in Shaba Region between supporters of Tshisekedi and Nguza; conflict between Tshisekedi and Mobutu over who runs government continues. [8]

Mobutu, officials in the Central bank, the military and others are reported to be running an illicit diamond export racket worth several hundred million dollars a year. [9]

Inflation is more than 6000%, unemployment is at 80%. [9]

1993:

January - Soldiers riot and loot following refusal by merchants to accept new Z\$5 million notes with which military personnel were paid; in ensuing violence dozens of soldiers killed by elite army unit loyal to Mobutu; French ambassador killed while watching violence from his office window. [8]

March - Mobutu dismisses Tshisekedi and names Faustin Birindwa prime minister of so-called government of national salvation; Birindwa names cabinet in April; Zaire now has two rival, parallel governments. [8]

October - More rioting and looting occur when opposition parties promote boycott of new currency issue used to pay troops. [8]

1994:

Mobutu agrees to the appointment of Kengo Wa Dondo, an advocate of austerity and free-market reforms, as prime minister. [1]

1996-97:

Tutsi rebels capture much of eastern Zaire while Mobutu is abroad for medical treatment. [1]

1997:

May - Tutsi and other anti-Mobutu rebels, aided principally by Rwanda, capture the capital, Kinshasa; Zaire is renamed the Democratic Republic of Congo; Laurent-Desire Kabila installed as president. [1]

1998:

August - Rebels backed by Rwanda and Uganda rise up against Kabila and advance on Kinshasa. Zimbabwe, Namibia send troops to repel them. Angolan troops also side with Kabila. The rebels take control of much of the east of DR Congo. [1]

1999:

Rifts emerge between Congolese Liberation Movement (MLC) rebels supported by Uganda and Rally for Congolese Democracy (RCD) rebels backed by Rwanda. [1]

July - The six African countries involved in the war sign a ceasefire accord in Lusaka. The following month the MLC and RCD rebel groups sign the accord. [1]

2000:

UN Security Council authorises a 5,500-strong UN force to monitor the ceasefire but fighting continues between rebels and government forces, and between Rwandan and Ugandan forces. [1]

2001:

January - President Laurent Kabila is shot dead by a bodyguard. Joseph Kabila succeeds his father. [1]

February - Kabila meets Rwandan President Paul Kagame in Washington. Rwanda, Uganda and the rebels agree to a UN pull-out plan. Uganda, Rwanda begin pulling troops back from the frontline. [1]

May - US refugee agency says the war has killed 2.5 million people, directly or indirectly, since August 1998. Later, a UN panel says the warring parties are deliberately prolonging the conflict to plunder gold, diamonds, timber and coltan, used in the making of mobile phones.[1]

2002:

January - Eruption of Mount Nyiragongo devastates much of the city of Goma. [1]

April - Peace talks in South Africa: Kinshasa signs a power-sharing deal with Ugandan-backed rebels, under which the MLC leader would be premier. Rwandan-backed RCD rebels reject the deal. [1]

July - Presidents of DR Congo and Rwanda sign a peace deal under which Rwanda will withdraw troops from the east and DR Congo will disarm and arrest Rwandan Hutu gunmen blamed for the killing of the Tutsi minority in Rwanda's 1994 genocide. [1]

September - Presidents of DR Congo and Uganda sign peace accord under which Ugandan troops will leave DR Congo. [1]

September/October - Uganda, Rwanda say they have withdrawn most of their forces from the east but local militias take advantage of the vacuum left by the troop departure. UN-sponsored talks begin in South Africa, with the Kinshasa government and the two main rebel groups discussing power-sharing plans. [1]

December - Peace deal signed in South Africa between Kinshasa government and main rebel groups. Under the deal rebels and opposition members are to be given portfolios in an interim government. [1]

2003:

April - President Kabila signs a new constitution, under which an interim government will rule for two years, pending elections. The constitution was drawn up at talks in South Africa between DR Congo's warring factions. [1]

May - Last Ugandan troops leave eastern DR Congo as reports emerge of bloody clashes between rival militias in Bunia area. [1]

June - French soldiers arrive in Bunia, spearheading a UN-mandated rapid-reaction force. [1]

President Kabila names a transitional government to lead DR Congo until democratic elections take place in two years time. Leaders of the main former rebel groups are sworn in as vice-presidents in July. [1]

August - Interim parliament inaugurated. [1]

December - Former government soldiers and those of two main rebel groups form a united force. [1]

2004:

March - Gunmen attack military bases in Kinshasa in an apparent coup attempt. [1]

June - Rebel soldiers occupy eastern border town of Bukavu for a week. Government accuses Rwanda of supporting rebels. Protests in Kinshasa over UN's failure to prevent town's capture turn violent. [1]

Reported coup attempt by rebel guards is said to have been neutralised. [1]

December - Fighting in the east between the Congolese army and renegade soldiers from a former pro-Rwanda rebel group. Rwanda denies being behind the mutiny. [1]

2005:

March - UN peacekeepers say they have killed more than 50 militia members in an offensive, days after nine Bangladeshi soldiers serving with the UN are killed in the north-east. [1]

May - New constitution, with text agreed by former warring factions, is adopted by National Assembly. [1]

Summary

1885: Belgium's King gains title to the Congo. Exploitation begins.

1908: Belgian state takes over.

1960: Independence.

Belgian interests stir up rivalries and Tshombe declares Katanga independent. The USA conspires against president Lumumba.

1961: Tshombe has Lumumba killed and CIA dispose of body. US then works against Tshombe and backs a united Congo.

1963: Congo is united.

1965: Mobutu takes over and renames the country Zaire. During years of corruption and oppression he is frequently supported by the US and others.

1996-97: Rebels take control while Mobutu is abroad. Zaire is renamed the Democratic Republic of Congo.

1998: Rebels backed by Rwanda and Uganda try to take control. Angola and Namibia support the government.

1999: Ceasefire signed.

2002: Power sharing deal signed, but peace remains illusive.

Rwanda

1918:

Under the Treaty of Versailles the former German colony of Rwanda-Urundi is made a U.N. protectorate to be governed by Belgium. The two territories (later to become Rwanda and Burundi) are administered separately under two different Tutsi monarchs. [1]

Both Germany and Belgium turned the traditional Hutu-Tutsi relationship into a class system. The minority Tutsi (14%) are favored over the Hutus (85%) and given privileges and western-style education. The Belgians used the Tutsi minority to enforce their rule. [1]

1926:

Belgians introduce a system of ethnic identity cards differentiating Hutus from Tutsis. [1]

post 1945:

After World War II, the king and the rest of the Tutsi elite demand independence. The call is resisted by Belgium and the White Fathers, who instead back Hutus who demand Hutu liberation from Tutsi oppression. [5]

1957:

PARMEHUTU (Party for the Emancipation of the Hutus) is formed while Rwanda is still under Belgian rule. [1]

1959:

The main Hutu political party is the Mouvement Démocratique Républicain (MDR) led by Grégoire Kayibanda, who, in the name of "social revolution" orchestrates the first of many pogroms against Tutsis, with Belgian connivance. Thousands are killed, and many more flee as refugees. [5]

1960:

Hutus win municipal elections organized by Belgian colonial rulers. [1]

1961-62:

Belgians withdraw. Rwanda and Burundi become two separate and independent countries. [1]

A Hutu revolution in Rwanda installs a new president, Grégoire Kayibanda; fighting continues and thousands of Tutsis are forced to flee. In Burundi, Tutsis retain power. [1]

1963:

Further massacre of Tutsis, this time in response to military attack by exiled Tutsis in Burundi. Again more refugees leave the country. It is estimated that by the mid-1960s half of the Tutsi population is living outside Rwanda. [1]

1967:

Renewed massacres of Tutsis. [1]

1973:

Purge of Tutsis from universities. Fresh outbreak of killings, again directed at Tutsi community. [1]

The army chief of staff, General Juvenal Habyarimana, seizes power, pledging to restore order. He sets up a one-party state. A policy of ethnic quotas is entrenched in all public service employment. Tutsis are restricted to nine percent of available jobs. [1]

1975:

Habyarimana's political party, the National Revolutionary Movement for Development (Mouvement Révolutionnaire National pour le Développement, or MRND) is formed. Hutus from the president's home area of northern Rwanda are given overwhelming preference in public service and military jobs. This pattern of exclusion of the Tutsis continues throughout the '70s and '80s. [1]

All Rwandans, regardless of age, are automatically made members of the MRND. Real power however lies not with formal party structures but with Habyarimana and his presidential guard, together with a small coterie of people close to him called the akazu (little house). [5]

Habyarimana retains ties with Belgium but cultivates closer links with France, which was happy to welcome another francophone state into "the family". [5]

Habyarimana's Hutu regime becomes a formal military ally of France. [6]

1980's:

Under the presidency of François Mitteran, France becomes Rwanda's biggest bilateral donor, and the two countries sign a military co-operation agreement which guarantees Habyarimana the assistance of French troops should his power become threatened. [5]

1986:

In Uganda, Rwandan exiles are among the victorious troops of Yoweri Museveni's National Resistance Army who take power, overthrowing the dictator Milton Obote. The exiles then form the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), a Tutsi-dominated organization. [1]

1989:

Coffee prices collapse, causing severe economic hardship in Rwanda. [1]

1990:

July - Under pressure from Western aid donors, Habyarimana concedes the principle of multi-party democracy. [1]

October - RPF guerillas invade Rwanda from Uganda. After fierce fighting in which French and Zairean troops are called in to assist the government, a cease-fire is signed on March 29, 1991. [1] [5]

The result is a stalemate, with the RPF holding Rwanda's northern Byumba province and the government unable to capture it, but the RPF equally unable to advance on Kigali. [5]

1990-91:

The Rwandan army begins to train and arm civilian militias known as interahamwe ("Those who stand together") For the next three years Habyarimana stalls on the establishment of a genuine multi-party system with power-sharing. Throughout this period thousands of Tutsis are killed in separate massacres around the country. Opposition politicians and newspapers are persecuted. [1]

1991:

Under French pressure, Habyarimana instituted long-delayed political reforms, including an end to the one party state. [5]

1992:

A multiparty government is formed and immediately begins negotiations with the RPF, despite hostility to the process from within the akazu. [5]

November - Prominent Hutu activist Dr. Leon Mugusera appeals to Hutus to send the Tutsis "back to Ethiopia" via the rivers. [1]

1993:

February - RPF launches a fresh offensive and the guerillas reach the outskirts of Kigali. French forces are again called in to help the government side. Fighting continues for several months. [1]

August - Following months of negotiations, Habyarimana and the RPF sign a peace accord that allows for the return of refugees and a coalition Hutu-RPF government. 2,500 U.N. troops are deployed in Kigali to oversee the implementation of the accord. [1]

Representatives of all the non-French Western diplomatic missions in Kigali say that France sought a clear victory for President Habyarimana and the Little House. [6]

November - French troops leave. [5]

September 1993 – March 1994 - President Habyarimana stalls on setting up of power-sharing government. Training of militias intensifies. Extremist radio station, Radio Mille Collines, begins broadcasting exhortations to attack the Tutsis. Human rights groups warn the international community of impending calamity. [1]

Throughout this period Belgian intelligence and the UNAMIR report of the activities preparing for violence. General Dallaire repeatedly requests that the UN allow him to seize illegal arms, but his requests are refused. Propoganda encouraging violence against the Tutsi is open; many killings and attacks occur; informants give information on killings which subsequently occur; the UNAMIR blocks arms shipments, including from the Mil-Tec Corporation of the United Kingdom and the Société Dyl-Invest of France. Despite all this the UN does not act. Boutros-Ghali refuses to push the Security Council to strengthen the mandate believing it is futile to propose a change that the U.S. and U.K. are sure to oppose. [2]

As the foreign governments most involved with Rwanda, France, the U.S., and Belgium follow the deteriorating situation and cooperate with the U.N. and with each other in trying to speed implementation of the Arusha Accords. Despite the clear signs of imminent violence, both France and the U.S. fail to respond with any new initiatives and continue to operate within the same constraints that have shaped their policy towards Rwanda for some time. Belgium, spurred by the added responsibility of having troops on the ground, seeks a greater international commitment to prevent the disaster, but fails to invest the energy needed to make the other powers respond. [2]

1994:

March - Many Rwandan human rights activists evacuate their families from Kigali believing massacres are imminent. [1]

6th April - President Habyarimana and the president of Burundi, Cyprien Ntaryamira, are killed when Habyarimana's plane is shot down near Kigali Airport. Extremists, suspecting that the president is finally about to implement the Arusha

Peace Accords, are believed to be behind the attack. That night the killing begins. [1]

7th April - The Rwandan Armed Forces (FAR) and the interahamwe set up roadblocks and go from house to house killing Tutsis and moderate Hutu politicians. Thousands die on the first day. U.N. forces stand by while the slaughter goes on. They are forbidden to intervene, as this would breach their "monitoring" mandate. [1]

8th April - The RPF launches a major offensive to end the genocide and rescue 600 of its troops surrounded in Kigali. The troops had been based in the city as part of the Arusha Accords. [1]

12th April - France closes its embassy in Kigali and its military assistance mission. [6]

21st April - The U.N. cuts its forces from 2,500 to 250 following the murder of ten Belgian soldiers assigned to guard the moderate Hutu prime minister, Agathe Uwiliyingimana. The prime minister is killed and the Belgians are disarmed, tortured, and shot and hacked to death. They had been told not to resist violently by the U.N. force commander, as this would have breached their mandate. [1]

30th April - The U.N. Security Council spends eight hours discussing the Rwandan crisis. The resolution condemning the killing omits the word "genocide." Had the term been used, the U.N. would have been legally obliged to act to "prevent and punish" the perpetrators. Meanwhile, tens of thousands of refugees flee into Tanzania, Burundi and Zaire. In one day 250,000 Rwandans, mainly Hutus fleeing the advance of the RPF, cross the border into Tanzania. [1]

Britain effectively aids the slaughter by helping to reduce UN force that could have prevented the killings, in helping to delay other plans for intervention and in resisting use of the term 'genocide' which would have obligated the international community to act. [3]

17th May - As the slaughter of the Tutsis continues the U.N. agrees to send 6,800 troops and policemen to Rwanda with powers to defend civilians. A Security Council resolution says "acts of genocide may have been committed."

Deployment of the mainly African U.N. forces is delayed because of arguments over who will pay the bill and provide the equipment. The United States argues with the U.N. over the cost of providing heavy armoured vehicles for the peacekeeping forces. [1]

22nd June - With still no sign of U.N. deployment, the Security Council authorizes the deployment of French forces in south-west Rwanda. They create a "safe area" in territory controlled by the government. Killings of Tutsis continue in the safe area, although some are protected by the French. The United States government eventually uses the word "genocide." [1]

July - The RPF captures Kigali. The Hutu government flees to Zaire, followed by a tide of refugees. The French end their mission and are replaced by Ethiopian U.N. troops. The RPF sets up an interim government of national unity in Kigali. A cholera epidemic sweeps the refugee camps in Zaire, killing thousands. Different U.N. agencies clash over reports that RPF troops have carried out a series of reprisal killings in Rwanda. Several hundred civilians are said to have been executed. Meanwhile the killing of Tutsis continues in refugee camps.[1]

August - New Rwandan government agrees to trials before an international tribunal established by the U.N. Security Council. [1]

November - U.N. Security Council establishes an international tribunal that will oversee prosecution of suspects involved in genocide. [1]

1995:

5th-10th January - U.N. begins process towards finalizing plans with Zaire and Tanzania that will lead to the return of one and a half million Hutus to Rwanda over the next five months. U.N. Security Council refuses to dispatch an international force to police refugee camps. [1]

19th February - Western governments, including the U.S. (\$60 million), pledge \$600 million in aid to Rwanda. [1]

27th February - U.N. Security Council urges all states to arrest people suspected of involvement in the Rwandan genocide. [1]

Mid May - Tensions increase between the United Nations and the Rwandan government; the government growing resentful of the lack of international financial aid. [1]

10th June - U.N. Security Council unanimously agrees to cut by more than half the number of U.N. troops in Rwanda after a direct request from the Rwandan government to withdraw U.N. forces. [1]

July - More than 720,000 Hutu refugees around Goma refuse to return to Rwanda. [1]

August - U.N. Security Council lifts arms embargo until September 1, 1996. [1]

20th September - At a Mass in Nairobi, Pope John Paul II urges an end to the bloodshed in Rwanda and Burundi. [1]

12th December - United Nations Tribunal for Rwanda announces first indictments against eight suspects; charges them with genocide and crimes against humanity. [1]

13th December - U.N. Security Council extends its peacekeeping mission for three more months and agrees to reduce the number of troops. [1]

1996:

Rwandan troops invade and attack Hutu militia-dominated camps in Zaire in order to drive home the refugees. [4]

November - Mass repatriation from Zaire begins; the Rwandan government orders a moratorium on arrests of suspected genocide perpetrators. [1]

December - Trials begin for Hutus involved in 1994 genocide. [1]

Mid December - Tanzania closes refugee camps and repatriates Rwandans, bringing the total to over one million. [1]

1997:

10th January - First case in the Rwandan genocide trials comes before the International Criminal Tribunal in Arusha, Tanzania. The case is against Jean Paul Akayesu, a local government official accused of ordering mass killings in his area. [1]

17th January - In a Rwanda court, Francois Bizimutima becomes the third Hutu convicted and sentenced to death for his role in genocide. [1]

A woman who testified against Jean Paul Akayesu is murdered along with her husband and seven children by Hutu extremists. [1]

22nd January - Over 300 are killed in an attempt by the Rwandan army to capture Hutu insurgents responsible for killings in Northwestern Rwanda, including the murder of the three Spanish aid workers. U.N. officials state many victims are recently returned refugees who witnessed the 1994 genocide and are potential trial witnesses. [1]

2nd February - In Gikongoro, Rwanda, Venuste Niyonzima is the first man tried locally for crimes against humanity in his own village. A U.N. Human Rights official in Rwanda expresses "serious concern" over the lack of lawyers and adequate defense for those accused of participation in the 1994 genocide. Canadian priest, Guy Pinard, a witness to the 1994 genocide, is murdered by Hutu terrorists while saying mass. [1]

4th February - Five human rights observers are killed in an ambush in Cyangugu, Rwanda. The murders are viewed as an effort by Hutu terrorists to get foreign observers out of the country. All human rights observers in Cyangugu, Kibuye, and Gisenyi are withdrawn by the U.N. to Kigali. [1]

12th February - United Nations watchdog agency criticizes the management of the Rwandan genocide trials. [1]

14th February - United Nations Secretary General Kofi Annan asks the five permanent security council members to look into reports that the Zairean army is providing arms to Rwandan Hutus in an Eastern Zaire refugee camp. [1]

Vincent Nkezazaganwa, a Rwandan Supreme Court Justice, is gunned down by uniformed gunmen at his house. Frodouald Karamina, leader of a Hutu extremist political movement, is sentenced to death for his involvement in the genocide.

Karamina is believed to be one of the leaders and organizers of the genocide, having coined the slogan "Hutu Power" and made many racist radio broadcasts

urging mass murder. Karamina expressed no remorse for the part he had played in the genocide. Karamina was born a Tutsi and assimilated himself as a Hutu only later in life. [1]

19th-20th February - Four prominent Rwandans accused of genocide appear in court for the first time. [1]

23rd February - Israel Nemeyimana is the first defendant in the genocide trials to be found not guilty. Authorities state there was a lack of evidence and witnesses. [1]

26th February - Citing mismanagement and inefficiency, U.N. Secretary-General Kofi Annan fires the chief administrator Andronico Adede, and deputy prosecutor Honore Rakoromoanana in the Rwanda criminal trials. Agwu Okali of Nigeria is appointed new chief minister. By this date, the court has indicted 21 suspects. [1]

28th February - Virginia Mukankusi is sentenced to death for her participation in the genocide. [1]

Rwandan- and Ugandan-backed rebels depose President Mobutu Sese Seko of Zaire; Laurent Kabila becomes president of Zaire, which is renamed the Democratic Republic of Congo. [4]

1998:

Rwanda switches allegiance to support rebel forces trying to depose Kabila in the wake of the Congolese president's failure to expel extremist Hutu militias. [4]

1999:

December - A leader of a Hutu militia that helped lead the genocide, businessman Georges Rutaganda, is found guilty of genocide, crimes against humanity, and sentenced to life in prison. He is the sixth person found guilty since the tribunal began hearings in Arusha, Tanzania. [1]

2000:

March - Rwandan President Pasteur Bizimungu, a Hutu, resigns over differences regarding the composition of a new cabinet and after accusing parliament of targeting Hutu politicians in anti-corruption investigations. [4]

April - Ministers and members of parliament elect Vice-President Paul Kagame as Rwanda's new president. [4]

2001:

October - Voting to elect members of traditional "gacaca" courts begins. The courts - in which ordinary Rwandans judge their peers - aim to clear the backlog of 1994 genocide cases. [4]

December - A new flag and national anthem are unveiled to try to promote national unity and reconciliation. [4]

2002:

April - Former president Pasteur Bizimungu is arrested and faces trial on charges of illegal political activity and threats to state security. [4]

July - Rwanda, DR Congo sign peace deal under which Rwanda will pull troops out of DR Congo and DR Congo will help disarm Rwandan Hutu gunmen blamed for killing Tutsi minority in 1994 genocide. [4]

October - Rwanda says it has pulled the last of its troops out of DR Congo, four years after they went in to support Congolese rebels against the Kabila government. [4]

2003:

May - Voters back a draft constitution designed to prevent another genocide. The document bans the incitement of ethnic hatred. [4]

August - Paul Kagame claims a landslide victory in the first presidential elections since the 1994 genocide. [4]

October - First multi-party parliamentary elections; President Kagame's Rwandan Patriotic Front wins absolute majority. EU observers say poll was marred by irregularities and fraud. [4]

December - Three former media directors found guilty of inciting Hutus to kill Tutsis during 1994 genocide and receive lengthy jail sentences. [4]

2004:

March - President Kagame rejects conclusion of French report which says he ordered 1994 attack on president's plane, which sparked genocide. [4]

June - Former president, Pasteur Bizimungu, is sentenced to 15 years in jail for embezzlement, inciting violence and associating with criminals. [4]

October - Nearly 400 Rwandan troops deploy as part of a peacekeeping mission in Sudan's Darfur region. [4]

2005:

March - Main Hutu rebel group, FDLR, says it is ending its armed struggle. FDLR is one of several groups accused of creating instability in DR Congo; many of its members are accused of taking part in 1994 genocide [4]

Summary

1918: Hutu-Tutsi division under Belgium.

post 1945: Independence denied.

1959: First pogrom against Tutsis.

1961-67: Belgium withdraw. Rwanda and Burundi separate. Hutu revolution. Massacre of Tutsis.

1973-1994: Discrimination against Tutsis. Belgian & French ties.
1990: Tutsi RPF invasion. France and Zaire assist government.
1990-91: More slaughter of Tutsis.
1991: Political reforms.
1993: Peace accord with RPF. Slaughter looms, UN does nothing.
1994: Rwanda & Burundi presidents killed. Genocide of Tutsis. UN prevaricates. RPF offensive halts genocide.
1996: Refugees forced to return.
1998: Congo rebels backed.
2001: Community courts.
2002: Peace deal with Congo.
2004: President Kagame accused.

Kenya

1895:

Kenya becomes a British protectorate. [1]

1899:

Land regulations enable white settlers to expropriate much of the indigenous peoples' fertile land in the highlands. [1]

1915:

The British colonial administration institutes policies thwarting Africans from owning land in the Rift Valley area. The creation of the "White Highlands" displaces thousands of African nomadic groups (the Kalenjin, Maasai, Samburu, and Turkana) who lived in the area. While the colonial settlers oust these pastoralists who are unfit for providing agricultural labour, they recruit cheap labour from the neighboring areas (now Central, Nyanza and Western Provinces). Thousands of Kikuyu, Kisii, Luhya, and Luo squatters are brought into the Rift Valley area in the early 1900s. [1]

1920s:

European and Indian settlers make political claims. African political activity begins to be organized, especially among the Kikuyu in Nairobi and among the Luo. [1]

1923:

The British colonial administration attempts to curb European and Indian aspirations for internal self-government. [1]

1925:

Local native councils are introduced. [1]

1929:

Jomo Kenyatta, a leader of the Kikuyu Central Association, goes to the Colonial Office in London to present the Kikuyu's land claims. [1]

1939:

The colonial regime settles over 4,000 Kikuyu squatters on the areas (including Olenguruone, now in the Nakuru District) which had originally belonged to the Maasai. [1]

1944:

For the first time, an African is appointed to a position in the Legislative Assembly. The Kikuyu-led Kenya African Union (KAU), the first nationalist movement, is established. The Kikuyu had been the most politically organized group for over 20 years. [1]

1947:

Jomo Kenyatta returns to Kenya and becomes President of the KAU. Rising population, land shortages, erosion, urban unemployment, and increasing discontent with white settlers' "apartheid" attitude had led many Africans to increase anti-colonial nationalistic activities. [1]

1952-1956:

A terrorist campaign is launched by the Mau Mau, a secret society consisting primarily of Kikuyu. It is both a civil war among the Kikuyu and a challenge to colonial authority. The British impose a state of emergency and brutally suppress the Mau Mau, killing about 13,000 Africans and relocating more than 100,000 Kikuyu under harsh conditions. [1]

1952:

October - Britain declares state of emergency in colony of Kenya. British forces conduct human rights atrocities, establish Nazi-style concentration camps and 'resettle' hundreds of thousands of people in 'protected villages'. Around 150,000 Africans die. [2] [5] [6]

1953:

KAU is banned and Kenyatta jailed for seven years for his alleged involvement in the Mau Mau rebellion. [1] [2]

1956:

The Mau Mau uprising is defeated, but ultimately it helps bring about Kenyan independence in 1963. [1]

1957:

Africans members are elected to the legislative council on a limited franchise. [1]

1960:

The state of emergency imposed in 1952 is lifted. The British agree to set a date for the transition to majority rule. The Kenya African National Union (KANU), a descendant of KAU, is formed. The KANU (led by Kenyatta, Oginga Odinga, and Tom Mboya) is formed by the country's two largest ethnic groups, the Kikuyu and Luo. [1]

1961:

Kenyatta is released from detention. The British are forced to introduce a new policy which allows Africans to buy and farm the White Highlands. Kenya's first pre-independence general elections are held. The KANU defeat the Kenya African Democratic Union (KADU). The KADU (led by Masinde Muliro, Daniel arap Moi, and Ronald Ngala) represents smaller and less advantaged ethnic groups of the Great Rift Valley and coastal areas, including the Kalenjin. The KADU advocated Majimboism (regionalism in Swahili) which would create ethnic-based, semi-autonomous regions. [1]

The KADU had been formed with the covert assistance of the British government and British businesses, in an effort to get a more 'moderate' government after independence. The British stopped supporting it when they saw it could not beat the KANU. [2]

By selling at a high price the land previously seized by the settlers, not only do the settlers make a great deal of money, but it is ensured that the land passes into the hands of either wealthy individuals who will protect European business interests or people trapped by the debts they incur in borrowing money to buy the land. [2]

1963:

December - The constitution sets up a multi-party system. Three political parties, the KANU, KADU, and the African People's Party (APP), contest the second general elections. The KANU win and Majimboism is abandoned. [1]

December 12 - Kenya becomes independent. Kenyatta becomes Prime Minister and begins to consolidate his broad coalition by recruiting members from diverse ethnic groups and ideological factions. [1]

1964:

December - The Republic of Kenya is declared and Kenyatta becomes President. He handpicks Oginga Odinga (from a radical faction of the KANU) as a Luo Vice President. A conflict within the KADU between Luhya and Kalenjin over the land in the Great Rift Valley takes place. Kenyatta resolves the conflict in favor of the Kalenjin under the condition of the merger. Following the relatively voluntary dissolution of the KADU and the APP, the ruling KANU become the sole legal party and regional powers are abolished. The absorption of KADU reinforces the conservative faction in KANU. [1]

Between 1964 and 1978, President Kenyatta is twice re-elected and the Kikuyu disproportionally hold political positions. The Kikuyu obtain large tracts of the fertile land in the process of the Africanization of the former White Highlands to the cost of other groups, including the Kalenjin. Many Kikuyu believe that they have suffered the most during the colonial period and therefore they should benefit the most from independence. In the meantime, the Kalenjin turn westward against the Luhya. [1]

After independence, Kenya continues as a stable state and its economic growth rate is 6.2 percent in the decade 1964-1974. [1]

1966:

The Kenya People's Union (KPU), led by Vice President Odinga (a Luo), is formed. The radical faction of KANU defects to the KPU. Subsequently, Daniel arap Moi, a Kalenjin and a former KADU leader, becomes Vice President. [1]

1968:

The constitution is amended to make the Vice President acting president in case of the president's death. [1]

1969:

Tom Mboya, the Luo secretary-general of KANU and the expected successor to Kenyatta, is assassinated. Ethnic violence between the Kikuyu and the Luo erupts. President Kenyatta bans the KPU and detains its leaders. Kenya becomes a de facto one party state. Many Kenyans consider Kenyatta's repressive response as a means of consolidating the power of the KANU and the Kikuyu. Several Kikuyu political leaders are associated with a tribal organization called the Gikuyu/Kikuyu, Embu, Meru Association (GEMA) which aims to keep Kikuyu political hegemony. [1]

Despite the country's independence, land claims of communal pastoral groups such as the Maasai and Kalenjin who were evicted from the Rift Valley area during the colonial period are not accommodated. British settlers continued to own much of the fertile farmland. A land settlement scheme is established for those British settlers who wanted to sell their land. [1]

Encouraged and supported by Kenyatta, Kenyan squatter labor, particularly Kikuyu farmers, leaves the overpopulated Central Province and purchases land in the Rift Valley during the 1960s and 1970s. [1]

1970:

Vice President Moi becomes the most visible non-Kikuyu politician. [1]

1976-77:

GEMA fails to introduce a constitutional amendment to prevent non-Kikuyu Vice President Moi from succeeding Kenyatta. [1]

1978:

August - President Kenyatta dies. Moi was sworn in as acting president. He disbands all ethnic organizations, including GEMA. [1]

November 3 - Moi declares the Preservation of Public Security Act without ratification by the Kenya parliament. It institutes a state of emergency and leads to the arrest of hundreds of political dissidents including university professors, students, and journalists. [1]

1979:

Moi becomes President in an election where several established politicians are rejected by the electorate. Moi chooses Mwai Kibaki (a Kikuyu) as Vice President. At first, Moi attracts support from some Kikuyu and many Luhya. However, Moi soon follows the footsteps of his predecessor by disproportionately appointing Kalenjin to positions of power in his regime and by granting economic advantages to the Kalenjin. Accordingly, Moi's support base narrows significantly. [1]

1980:

Moi's close friend, Charles Mugane Njonjo, Kenya's attorney general for 17 years, appoints himself minister of constitutional affairs. [1]

1981-1982:

Moi bans trade and professional unions and suppresses strikes and protests by doctors, bank employees, industrial workers, and students. [1]

1982:

June 17 - Kenya officially becomes a one-party (the KANU) state through a constitutional amendment engineered by Njonjo. To be eligible to vote, citizens are forced to pay to register as KANU members. For the candidate to qualify for the election, he has to be a life member of the KANU. [1]

August 1 - There is a coup attempt by disaffected soldiers, allegedly supported by Odinga and other Luo and Kikuyu politicians. Over 1,000 members of the armed forces are court-martialed, hundreds more are detained without trial, and some 80 university students are arrested. [1]

1984:

March - Kenyan officials in the Wajir township near the Somali border charge that government forces killed 300 members of the Degodia tribe over a five day period. Sugul Unshur and Abdi Sheik say the forces rounded up 5000 Degodia, held them five days without food or water, then after killing about 500, forced more than 1000 into the bush where they were missing and feared dead. The officials said they thought the massacre was punishment for the Degodia's alleged past links to Somali guerrillas. The forces were originally sent to the area to stop the Degodia and Ajuran clans from fighting over water and grazing rights. Both are pastoralists ethnically related to the Somalis. The Norwegian embassy

confirms that aid workers in the area report similar charges to those of the Kenyan officials while the KANU government denies any massacre. (Facts on File, 3/16/1984) The Anti-slavery Society later confirms that between 300-1400 Degodia were killed, some through burning or being hacked to death by security forces, while 7000 others were left destitute. At least 400 members of the security forces were involved. (Reuters, 8/21/1984) [1]

An underground political movement called Iriria (Somali for tribal confederation) is blamed for violence and banditry in some northeastern districts. The government denies that it was engaged in a campaign to eliminate Kenya's Somali minority en masse. (BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), 3/29/1984) [1]

1986:

The Moi regime harasses family members of exiled politicians. After 1986, the country's political situation rapidly deteriorates. As political arrests continued, many university lecturers, journalists, students, and former parliament members go into exile. Moi accuses a left-wing group, called Mwakenya (the Union of Nationalists to Liberate Kenya), of being run by fanatic socialists and, by 1987, arrests over 100 people connected to this movement. Mwakenya, allegedly consisting of Kikuyus and Luos, appears to be an ethnic and ideological threat to Moi. [1]

July - Moi prohibits Kenyan journalists from reporting arrests and trials. [1]

1988:

Mwakenya is technically disbanded. [1]

February - As the sole KANU candidate, Moi begins his third five-year term as President. [1]

September - Seven months after being released from a six year prison term, Raila Odinga, the son of Oginga Odinga and the leader of the unpublicized Kenya Revolutionary Movement (KRM), is again detained. [1]

1988-1989:

Trials and imprisonments of alleged dissidents continues. Those associated with the clandestine opposition movement Mwakenya, and two other unpublicized groups, the KRM and the Kenya Patriotic Front (KPF) are among those target. [1]

Moi bans newspapers and magazines including Beyond, Financial Review, Development Agenda, and the Daily Nation. [1]

1989:

June - In response to international pressure, Moi releases all political prisoners who were being detained without trial and offered amnesty to dissidents living in exile. [1]

August - Somali rebels seize a major crossing point to Kenya while some 6000 Somalis camped on the border. (Reuters, 8/16/1989) [1]

November - More than 350 Somalis cross the border into Tanzania after Kenya starts a nation-wide screening of the Somalis community. The government announces that all Somalis over age 18, whether Kenyan citizens or not, will have to appear before a special screening team to verify their right to be in the country. (Xinhua, 11/13/1989) The Tanzanian government later says it will expel the Somalis. There is a significant Somali community in East Africa, but most of them do not have the proper immigration documents to legalize their stay in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. (Xinhua, 12/5/1989 and 12/11/1989) [1]

1990:

Moi resists growing demands for a multi-party system, threatening that multipartyism would revive inter-tribal violence. [1]

February 10 - The Kenyan government says it will repatriate more than 400 Somalis living illegally in the country. (Xinhua 2/10/1990) Somalis continue to flee Kenya citing discrimination and persecution (Inter Press Service (IPS (Interpress Service))), 3/16/1990) [1]

February 13 - The murder of Robert Ouko, a former foreign minister who had criticized the Moi regime, provokes widespread anti-government protests by students claiming that the government is covering up the circumstances of his death. The government bans demonstrations. [1]

July 7 - Security forces brutally disperse the pro-multipartyism rally at Kamakunji, Nairobi, led by the Law Society of Kenya and the churches. It is attended by thousands of supporters and triggers three days of rioting known as the Saba Saba (meaning seven seven, i.e., July 7) uprising. [1]

July - Two leading opposition figures are arrested and 20 people died in subsequent protests. President Moi continues to oppose political reform. By 1990, most key positions in the government, the military, and state-owned companies are taken by the Kalenjin. [1]

1991:

February - Garissa District Officer Peter Baraz Kusimba warns against anyone found housing Somali refugees. He says the refugees would stay at Garissa Baraza Park where they would be registered with the UNHCR. [1]

March - The Kenyan Red Cross decides to increase its aid to Somali and Ethiopian refugees, currently numbering more than 29,000, in the country. Refugees are arriving at a daily rate of about 200. (BBC, 3/16/1991) The UNHCR agrees to investigate the causes of complaints by some Somali refugees in Mombasa. (Xinhua, 3/18/1991) [1]

May - Police in Garissa launch a crackdown on local residents housing illegal immigrants. At least 110 residents are arrested and police say they will be charged with criminal offenses and the refugees will be sent to designated refugee camps. (BBC, 5/8/1991) The move to round up hundreds of refugees not confined to camps continues into June. [1]

July - An Africa Rights Watch report states that abuses in Kenya include violence in the northeast, discrimination against Somalis, and ill treatment of refugees. (IPS, 7/30/1991) The U.S. State Department's Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 1991 also states that discrimination against Somalis is a major concern. It is the only ethnic group in Kenya whose members are required to carry identification stating they are Kenyan citizens. [1]

August - Odinga and other opposition leaders establish a coalition group called the Forum for the Restoration of Democracy (FORD), calling for greater political pluralism. The government break up their demonstrations and arrest their leaders. [1]

November - The suspension of aid by the World Bank and bilateral donor nations pending economic and political reforms forces Moi to announce the introduction of a multi-party system in Kenya. [1]

December - The Kenyan parliament repeals Section 2(A) of the Constitution which prohibits opposition parties. Tribal fighting, tacitly encouraged by the Moi government, spreads to large parts of the Rift Valley, Western, and Nyanza areas. The Luhya, Kikuyu, and Kisii are greatly affected, but the Kalenjin are also victimized in retaliatory attacks by the Luhya, Luo and Kikuyu. [1]

1992:

March - Reports of ethnic violence become commonplace in the press. The Kalenjin Assistant Minister Kipkalia Kones declares Kericho District a KANU zone and states that the Kalenjin youth in the area have declared war on the Luo community in retaliation for several Kalenjins killed in earlier violence. [1]

The government accuses the opposition parties of fueling the violence through Libyan-trained recruits and opposition leaders accuse the government of orchestrating ethnic violence in order to weaken moves towards multipartyism. [1]

Moi prohibits all political rallies, citing the threat of tribal violence. [1]

May - Northeastern Kenya, populated mainly by pastoralists including Somalis, is hard hit by drought. Aid agencies report that a million people are threatened with starvation while a large number have already died. The situation in the northeast has been exacerbated by the influx of Somali and Ethiopian refugees. (IPS, 5/21/1992) The government issues a statement denying that hundreds of

thousands of Kenyans are dying of starvation in the northeast. The government says relief workers are active in the area. (BBC, 5/29/1992) [1]

June - The World Food Program begins airlifting emergency food relief to northeastern Kenya. Moi appeals to international donors to provide food aid for a million Kenyans and 400,000, 300,000 of whom are Somalis, refugees in the area facing starvation. (Xinhua, 6/12/1992) [1]

July-August - The government and international relief agencies are concerned over insecurity in refugee camps. In July, Medecins sans Frontieres withdraws from the northeast, and there have been attacks by bandits on food supplies, aid workers, and police. (BBC, 7/23/1992 and 8/1/1992) [1]

September - According to a parliamentary committee report, senior government officials have been involved in training and arming Kalenjin warriors to attack villages and drive away non-Kalenjin ethnic groups from the Rift Valley, Western, and Nyanza Provinces. [1]

October - The UNHCR begins voluntarily repatriating Somali refugees in Kenya. (Reuters, 10/19/1992) [1]

December 29 - Moi and the KANU retain power with only 36% of the popular vote in the country's first multi-party elections since independence. Division was apparent within the three major opposition parties, the Forum for the Restoration of Democracy-Kenya (FORD-K), the Forum for the Restoration of Democracy-Asili (FORD-A), and the Democratic Party (DP). Ford-A and Ford-K were split from the original FORD coalition, contributing to the victory of the KANU. The opposition alleges the elections have been rigged and fraudulent. Thousands of Kenyans were unable to vote as a result of the displacement and destruction caused by the pre-election ethnic fighting. [1]

1993:

The violence in the Rift Valley continues unabated throughout 1993. The Uasin Gishu, Trans Nzoia, Bungoma, and Nakuru Districts are the most affected. Fighting in the Burnt Forest area in Uasin Gishu pits the Kalenjin against the Kikuyu community. [1]

January 1 - UNHCR representative Panos Moumtzi says the commission is concerned over the government's apparent desire to forcefully repatriate refugees. A statement coming from President Moi's office calls on the UNHCR to immediately repatriate all refugees in Kenya, but Moumtzi says the UNHCR would not be party to any forced repatriations. (BBC, 1/22/1993) [1]

January 4 - Moi begins his fourth successive term in office. Moi's Kalenjin group and that of Vice-President George Saitoti's Maasai dominate the 25 member cabinet while the Kikuyu and Luo are given one representative each in the cabinet. [1]

October - The UNHCR seeks funds for Somali women who have been raped while in Kenyan refugee camps. Most were raped by roaming bandits, but some were raped by Kenyan security forces. (Agence France Presse (AFP), 10/4/1993) [1]
1994:

January - New violence occurs in the Rift Valley area, destroying the property of some 4,000 persons. Ten people are reported killed. [1]

August - Poor rains in the East for the third straight year will bring hunger to the region bordering Somalia. During the past three years of fighting, food production has been disrupted because of the displacement of Kikuyu who were primarily farmers. [1]

September - Of the 250,000-300,000 displaced from the Rift Valley Province since 1991, 175,000 remain displaced. [1]

October - The government is in the process of closing all refugee camps in Coast Province and relocating refugees to the north because the camps were threatening Kenya's tourist industry. Eighty percent of Kenya's 280,000 remaining refugees are Somalis (BBC, 10/7/1994) [1]

The government also assures the UNHCR that refugees will not be forcefully repatriated, but want the pace of voluntary repatriation to be stepped up. (BBC, 11/24/1994) [1]

1995:

January - An Amnesty International report Attacks on Human Rights Through the Misuse of Criminal Charges is published. In it, Kenya is criticized for its human rights abuses and lack of commitment to democratic reform. The report states, although opposition political parties operate openly and freely, opposition members of parliament, human rights activists, journalists and other government critics have been arrested in connection with peaceful demonstrations, speeches, publications or investigations into human rights abuses. [1]

A new development in Kenya is the government's decision to use capital criminal charges (which are not bailable) against people whose only offense is that they are non-violent critics of the Kenyan government. AI holds up the trial of Koigi Wamwere as a case in point. AI considers him and his fellow detainees to be prisoners of conscience arrested on trumped up charges and imprisoned for their non-violent beliefs. [1]

January 19 - The European Community allocates 170,000 ecu to aid a group of Kenyan Somalis who have lost all their livestock to drought prevalent in the northeast since 1992. The pastoralists fled their traditional land because of the drought and ethnic conflict in the region. (Commission of the European Communities) [1]

June 20 - Richard Leakey, a white paleontologist, registers a new opposition party, called the SAFINA, in order to forge a national alliance capable of challenging President Moi. Moi immediately goes on the offensive against Leakey, denouncing him a foreigner, traitor, and atheist who would find it "extremely difficult to relate to God-fearing Kenyans" and vows that "Kenya would never again be ruled by a white man." Leakey served as the Moi-appointed director at the Kenya Wildlife Service from 1989 to 1994. [1]

July - Human Rights Watch publishes Old Habits Die Hard: Rights Abuses Follow Renewed Foreign Aid Commitments. HRW reports that since the renewal of aid commitments in 1994 (\$800 million in aid was pledged to Kenya by foreign donors at a December 1994 meeting), human rights conditions in Kenya have deteriorated. The report finds that resettlement of refugees in Kenya by the government and UNDP is failing; the government banned organizations and the media in 1995; there were attacks against human rights organizations and media offices; there were numerous complaints by opposition members that their meetings were disrupted by police or local authorities and that they were denied permits to hold meetings; and that from January-March 1995 there were arrests and/or detentions of about a dozen opposition MPs. In addition, the report states, multipartyism has not been accompanied by the requisite institutional and legal reform essential to genuine democratization. [1]

December 15 - The ruling KANU party outlines a five-point strategy aimed at strengthening the party in preparation for the upcoming 1997 elections. It will launch a national youth development program to coordinate and mobilize youth while assisting them in project identification. [1]

Party spokesman Taikwen Kamotho issues a stern warning to leaders who engage in tribal talks saying the party will no longer tolerate leaders who engage in tribal comments. [1]

1996:

January - There were several reported incidents of ethnic violence. Violence is reported January 6 in Thessalia, a camp for displaced persons and January 11 in Longonot where 10 people were killed. In addition, displaced persons from Maela camp who were forcibly dispersed by the government in December 1994 are again forcibly moved by the district administrator. Those remaining in the camp are subjected to nightly attacks by administrative police. [1]

February - The introduction of new identity cards leads to fears that the government might be planning to rig the 1997 election. Voters must identify their ancestral constituency on the application form rather than their current place of residence which has analysts speculating that voters might have to vote in their place of birth which would be impossible for many. The Electoral Commission,

whose members are presidential appointees, has also recently created new districts and constituencies along ethnic lines. [1]

The police continue to harass refugees, even those with legitimate papers, in constant crackdowns against foreigners. (IPS, 2/21/1996)[1]

27-28 March - About 40 local and international NGOs based in Kenya, individuals and religious bodies' representatives meet to discuss the situation of peace in Kenya. The meeting is an outgrowth of Peace Net, founded in September 1993 as the Ethnic Clashes Network, as a response to ethnic violence. The leaders express their fear of renewed clashes, concern over the culture of violence taking over the country, and the need for "concerted effort to restore peace and stability to Kenya." They warn that the "level of violence-political and otherwise-appears to escalate as we approach the 1997 election year." [1]

9 April - KANU parliamentarian Kipruto arap Kirwa, who launched a verbal attack against President Moi two weeks ago, has disappeared fueling suspicions that he has been arrested for his outspokenness. Kirwa had accused Moi of stifling alternative views in KANU and of being undemocratic. Dissatisfaction within the Kalenjin community has been most evident among the Nandi, the sub-group to which Kirwa belongs, but other members of the KANU alliance have also shown their impatience with Moi. [1]

10 April - Police assault voters who turn out at a by-election in the Nairobi constituency of Starehe. The opposition claims it was an attempt to intimidate supporters in an anti-KANU stronghold. [1]

29 September - Opposition and religious leaders are calling for a new constitution that will change the electoral system. KANU officials flatly refuse to consider changing the electoral rules, much less replace the constitution. For the past 15 months, Moi has refused to register Safina as a political party. [1]

6 December - According to police spokesmen, more than 50 people are killed in northwestern Kenya when Samburu and Pokot tribesmen armed with rifles attack Turkana settlements. [1]

1997:

February - The State Department's Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 1996 states that, though the human rights situation improved slightly over 1995, Kenya is far from a champion of human rights. The government of Daniel arap Moi continues to harass and jail critics, including politicians, clergy, journalists and activists, of his government. It also continues to block access of the opposition to their supporters and the media. Though there were few reports of ethnic violence in 1996, the government has not yet addressed the root causes of the 1991-1994 violence in the Rift Valley Province and governmental discrimination against Kikuyus in the Province continues.[1]

The government has also warned white Kenyans against participating in political activities and it has singled out Somalis as the only group that must carry two identity cards to produce upon request. The continued presence of Somali refugees has increased the difficulties faced by Kenyan Somalis. There is also societal and official discrimination against Asian Kenyans. [1]

April - The World Food Program extends its aid to refugees in northern Kenya. More than half the refugees who had fled to Kenya since 1991 have returned home. The majority of Somali refugees are located in the Dadaab area camps in Garissa district. [1]

11 June - Calls for a constitutional convention have revitalized the middle class who are weary of the declining economy and rampant corruption within Moi's regime. The question for the country is whether the opposition can unite and turn this issue into the main issue of the upcoming presidential elections. Reformers have been pushing for an amendment which would require the winner to gain a majority of votes cast rather than the current system of a quarter of votes in only 5 of 8 districts. The opposition is also pushing for the constitution to allow for a coalition government instead of the current winner-take-all system. [1]

7 July - Police crack down on pro-democracy demonstrators killing at least nine across the nation (other reports estimated up to 15 killed). The international response was muted. [1]

31 July - The IMF announces that it is suspending a \$205 million loan to Kenya because of the government's failure to provide proper transparency and accountability. [1]

20 September - The government announces it will mobilize up to 20,000 police in a crackdown in the Coastal region. Over the past five weeks, at least 62 people have died and 73 been injured in the violence. The violence is aimed mainly at "upcountry" people. Reports indicate that "marauding gangs" are perpetrating the violence, but there is no indication from which ethnic group they originate-only that they are "indigenous" coastal people. [1]

November - Flooding in the northeast has turned refugee camps in Dadaab into islands with virtually no access. There are fears that starvation and disease in the camps are on the horizon. (BBC, 11/25/1997) The World Food Program begins food airdrops to the islands in December. (Xinhua, 12/24/1997) [1]

31 December - Election results indicate that Moi has won the presidency with about 40% of the vote. Kibaki of the Democratic Party gains 30% of the vote, and Odinga of FORD-Kenya receives about 11%. KANU maintains a small majority in parliament with 106 of 210 seats. The DP wins 39 seats, the National Development Party 21, and the Social Democratic Party 14. Most observers note electoral violence and irregularities, including bribing and intimidation of voters, and bias

of presiding and returning election officers. Opposition groups protest that outright fraud, including vote-rigging, took place. [1]

1998:

8 January - DP chairman Mwai Kibaki says he will use the courts to challenge Moi's election victory. He says vote-rigging occurred throughout Kenya, but there were glaring violations in the Coast and northeastern provinces. [1]

March - Supplies for refugees are dwindling, and food rations have to be cut in half. There is limited funding available, and the roads to refugee camps in the northeast were still impassable since November flooding.(ANS (African News Service), 3/17/1998) [1]

August - Bomb explodes at US embassy in Nairobi, killing more than 200 people and injuring thousands. [3]

December - Moi orders police to crack down on illegal immigrants in Kenya. Over five hundred are arrested, and many complain of abuse, including rape and extortion, while in custody. (ANS, 12/6/1998) [1]

1999:

February - Somalis are one of about a dozen groups of pastoralists in Kenya. The pastoralists are concerned that the constitutional review process will not adequately and effectively address their needs. They would like remedial developmental measures to allow them to catch up with the rest of the country, as well as improvements in health care, educational opportunities, more watering holes, and land rights. (ANS, 2/23/1999) Somalis are also concerned that they are demonized by the government as "bandits" behind cattle rustling and other criminal activity in the north. [1]

April - Former members of Kenyan Mau Mau movement announce they are suing British government for human rights atrocities committed in 1950s. [2] [5] [6]

June - More than 300 Somalis cross into Kenya in search of asylum. They are fleeing fighting in the town of Kismaayo and drought in Somalia. (IRIN (integrated regional information network), 6/28/1999) [1]

Moi appoints Richard Leakey to head government drive against corruption. [3]

2001:

April - Leakey appears in court to face charges of abuse of power and perverting the course of justice. [3]

June - Parliament passes law allowing the import and manufacture of cheap copies of drugs against Aids. [3]

October - Moi appoints Kenyatta's son Uhuru to parliament and to a cabinet post in November, apparently to rejuvenate the Kanu leadership before the 2003 election. [3]

Ethnic tensions culminate in several violent clashes. In December thousands flee and several people are killed in rent battles involving Nubian and Luo communities in Nairobi's Kibera slum district. [3]

2002:

July - Britain's Ministry of Defence agrees to pay more than \$7m (£4.5m) plus costs, following two days of talks in London aimed at settling the case without going to court. Hundreds of Masai and Samburu tribespeople - many of them children - are said to have been killed or maimed by unexploded bombs left by the British army at practice ranges in central Kenya over the past 50 year. [4]

November - Ten Kenyans, three Israelis are killed when an Israeli-owned hotel near Mombasa is blown up by a car bomb. A simultaneous rocket attack on an Israeli airliner fails. A statement - purportedly from al-Qaeda - claims responsibility. [3]

December - Opposition presidential candidate Mwai Kibaki wins a landslide victory over Kanu rival Uhuru Kenyatta, ending Daniel arap Moi's 24-year rule and Kanu's four decades in power. [3]

2003:

January - Government bill proposes anti-corruption commission. Moi critic John Githongo appointed anti-graft czar. [3]

November - International Monetary Fund (IMF) resumes lending after three-year gap, citing anti-corruption measures. [3]

December - Government decides to grant former president Daniel arap Moi immunity from prosecution on corruption charges. [3]

2004:

March-July - Long-awaited draft of new constitution completed. Document requires parliament's approval and proposes curbing president's powers and creating post of prime minister. But deadline for enactment is missed. [3]

July-August - Food crisis, caused by crop failures and drought, dubbed "national disaster" by President Kibaki. UN launches aid appeal for vulnerable rural Kenyans. [3]

October - Ecologist Wangari Maathai wins Nobel Peace Prize. [3]

Controversy over jail conditions amid intense media coverage of inmate deaths at Meru jail in the east. [3]

Summary

1895-1963: British rule: theft and exploitation.

1929: Kenyatta goes to London.

1944: KAU established.
1947: Kenyatta returns.
1952-1956: Mau Mau crushed. KAU banned, Kenyatta jailed.
1957: Africans elected to council.
1960: KANU formed.
1961: Kenyatta released. KANU win elections. British protect wealth.
1963: Independence, Kenyatta PM.
1964: Republic of Kenya declared.
1969: Ethnic violence.
1978: Kenyatta dies. Moi president.
1981-1982: Dissent suppressed.
1982: One party state. Coup fails.
1984: Massacre by government.
1986-2001: Repression & violence.
1999: Mau Mau sue UK gov.
2002: UK MoD to pay \$7m+ to victims. Moi's rule ended.

Angola

1976-1992:
CIA assists South African backed rebels. [1]